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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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FEBRUARY, 1938

Learning to Read

A Reading Program in Elementary School

Types of Reading Matter in Readers Over a Period of Twenty Years

Educative Methods Relative to Intelligence and Character Difficulties

Published by The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association of the United States

OLUME XVII NUMBER 5

EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

WHAT DO YOU MEAN–LEARNING TO READ?

W. B. Townsend

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For the last fifteen years the writer has been trying to help teachers learn how to teach reading. Often he has been asked, "Just what is reading, anyway? How does a child learn to read?" In fact, this question is asked so often that it is obvious that most teachers are not sure of the answer.

There are two popular contemporary points of view with regard to the teaching of beginning reading which are distinctly contradictory. The more conservative is most ably presented, perhaps in the Twenty-sixth and Thirty-sixth Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education. However interesting these volumes are to the reading specialist, the writer has found that they only confuse the classroom teacher.

The writers of these yearbooks still seem to consider reading as a subject and give it the central place in the curriculum. They claim that gaining meanings, associating meanings with sounds and with printed symbols, studying, and even thinking are all included in the meaning of this term. The actual procedure to be used by the teacher is not discussed in detail; it would seem that the teacher is to buy a good set of readers and proceed to teach reading.

The other point of view is that which is held by many master teachers who have learned by actually working with children that the process of reading can be much simplified and that they do not need to worry about developing the more complicated language processes until the child has developed considerable skill in reading.

They believe in a vital, functional curriculum in which reading is a mere tool, useful in helping the children gain information or to read about the adventures of others. The experiences of the children in social living are the center of integration—not reading. This is called the "experience method" as opposed to the "reader method."

Before we examine these two points of view, let us consider the function of the school to see which of the above fits our philosophy. The writer has accepted the following as an expression of his philosophy: "The function of the school is to supplement the activities of the home to the end that each child shall develop into an integrated, well-adjusted, well-rounded individual anxious to preserve a democratic form of social living."

In order to meet these objectives the school

must provide suitable experiences for each age group so that the children may practice living in a democratic social order. There will be problems to meet in the field of social studies, science and health, and the use of leisure time. The teacher's function is so to guide the child that all aspects of his personality will be developed.

In order to solve these problems the children will need to gain information, to organize and evaluate it, and finally to come to a conclusion, and to act. However, it would be possible for them to do all of this without being able to read. This makes clear the point that reading is only a means of getting information, and so is dependent upon content experiences for its functional use.[1]

This brings us to a consideration of the question as to just what is the place of reading in the program of the modern school. In view of the philosophy expressed above, the writer is not able to agree with the first point of view. He considers it conservative, if not reactionary, and feels that it is bound to hold back the development of more effective teaching methods.

The second point of view needs to be presented very carefully, but he feels that it is much more sound. The simpler the process of learning to read can be made, the better it will be for both the teachers and the children. Perhaps it would be well to show why the experience method is simpler.

When reading is conceived as a subject and a basic reader is used, there are three steps involved: meaning, sound, sight. In other words, the child must have some experiences with an object, make an association between this object and a sounded word, and, finally, make an association with a printed symbol.

On the other hand, when reading is taught by the experience method, the teacher is concerned solely with the third aspect. Reading, then, consists only of associating meanings and pronunciations already acquired with printed symbols. The meanings and sounds (oral vocabulary) are developed in connection with the daily experiences of the child as he participates in social living.

Of course, this makes helping a child learn to read a much easier task for the teacher. Instead of three jobs she now has only one—helping the child to build a sight vocabulary. Moreover, even that task is much easier because the child is more interested in reading about his own experiences or those of his group than about someone he doesn't know.

In this article there is hardly space enough to go into the details of building a vocabulary by the experience method. The children compose stories about their own experiences and these printed on wrapping paper serve as the basis for their reading experiences. Supplementary activities are provided if necessary.

After the child has developed a sight vocabulary, he is given many opportunities to read different types of material. He is also helped to develop work habits which will enable him to function in various kinds of situations. However, this is best done in connection with the social studies, as a phase of problem solving, rather than in a separate reading period with sets of readers.

In conclusion, let us again state what learning to read is and what it is not. The one primary essential in learning to read is to associate the meanings and pronunciations which the child has acquired with written or printed symbols—that is, to build a sight vocabulary. It is not developing an oral vocabulary, study habits, or even learning to think. These are all aspects of the problem-solving process and are best developed in connection with the vital, functional experiences of the child. Kilpatrick says, "The only valuable learning is that for immediate use." If the teacher will remember this, much useless labor will be avoided.

[1] The Literature, "Directed Reading" or "Reading for Fun" program is not being discussed in this article.

A READING PROGRAM FOR THE FIRST TWO YEARS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

MILTON J. COHLER

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There will be given in this paper an account of the reading program followed by the pupils of the school in which the writer is the principal, for the first two years they are in the graded school, and some data indicating progress. It is freely admitted at the outset that the objective data leave much to be desired in completeness and that objective data, however complete, do not measure certain outcomes to be expected from a sound educational program, which outcomes are at least as important as any that are capable of being described by objective data.

Indeed, these non-measured outcomes are of such great importance that the reading program is built primarily with them in view, and the measured results are looked upon merely as a corollary to the realization of the aims embodied in the heart of the plan. It was the observed effect on the personality of the child that failure in his initial efforts in school causes that led to the making of the plan to be described.

Even though we should like to see the time when the elementary school will be thought of in terms of a certain number of years of school experience, during which time each child will grow according to his capacities and interests, we must face the actual situation of today in which preconceived standards must be adhered to with more or less fidelity. The community demands that children start to learn to read as soon as they enter the graded school, and that they enter first grade as soon as they have lived a certain number of years. In general, the community is not interested in the psychologist's knowledge concerning differences in heredity and experiential background that may make it undesirable or impossible (in the present state of our knowledge) for certain children to learn reading at the age of six. The school demands that by the time a child reaches the fourth grade he shall have sufficient proficiency in reading to enable him to learn certain things by the use of books which contain reading material describing complicated ideas that are new to the experience of the child.

In an attempt to reconcile the demands of the community with those of the school, without ignoring completely the knowledge of the psychologist and the personality of the child, this program was built.

THE PROGRAM

On the first day of the semester the 1B teacher receives about forty pupils. She has their cumulative record folders from the kindergarten for those pupils who have been kindergarten members. The ages of the pupils range from five years, nine and one-half months, to six years, three months. After eliminating from consideration all those children lower than dull normal and brighter than bright normal, she has a range in intelligence quotients of 80 to 130. Multiplying the youngest age by the smallest normal in-

telligence quotient, and the greatest age by the largest normal intelligence quotient, we find a probable range in mental age of four years and eight months to eight years, two months—a range of three and one-half years, exclusive of the gifted group, the borderline defectives, and real defectives. These groups not included in the range constitute about seven per cent of an unselected class of 1B children.[1] The 1B classes are deliberately made heterogeneous.

Since it is generally agreed by reading experts that in order to be very successful in mastering the reading process a child should have a mental age of six to six and one-half years when he begins, the first grade teacher is setting herself no mean task when she undertakes to teach reading to all the children, almost half of whom are below six years in mental age. As long as no better method of admission to first grade is available to us than we now have, it will be necessary for the first grade teacher to aim to have about forty per cent of her class finish the normal 1B reading work during the second semester that the child is in the school. There will be no failures, however, because a child who does not repeat the same work is having a continuous experience, most of which is educative.

The teacher's aims for the child's first day in the 1B grade are to:

1. Make the child feel at home in the room and impress him with the congenial environment.
2. Acquaint the child with the routine of recess and going to and from school.
3. Make the child feel that he has made a definite start toward learning how to read.

It is especially important on the first day to take up new work—not to send the child home feeling that he is doing kindergarten work over, or just marking time. In the afternoon of the first day or the morning of the second day, the children should already be reading printed charts which the teacher has made from sentences composed by the children and written on the board by the teacher during the morning of the first day at school. These sentences should be drawn from the objective experiences of the children while in the room. This begins the pre-primer stage. All the reading in the pre-primer stage consists of reading from charts drawn from the direct experiences of the children, from bulletin board material, and in the case of the slow group from charts that definitely prepare them for the reading vocabulary of the primer.[2] Slides for various purposes and library books with interesting pictures are also used. During this time the children acquire interesting direct experiences with things and situations; they learn that print is a body of symbols into which interesting meanings can be put and out of which interesting meanings can be taken; they learn what a sentence is, what a word is, to read from left to right and from the top down; and they acquire a small sight vocabulary. The sight vocabulary is acquired by reading the same words in a variety of contextual relationships in highly interesting material—interesting because it is composed by the children and draws its subject matter from the direct experiences of the children with things and situations in the educational program.

The experiences are of such nature that they are valuable in themselves. The fact that they also furnish the basis for language and reading experiences is only an additional advantage in the experiences—not the reason for them. An experience that is not valuable in itself but merely furnishes the basis for reading is not worth the effort. By comparing a word on one chart with the same word

[1] Terman, Lewis M., *The Measurement of Intelligence*, p. 78. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916.

[2] Those paper-bound books often referred to by the publishers as "pre-primers" are here considered to be the beginning pages of the primer.

on another chart that the child is already acquainted with, he receives help in observing general configuration, similarities in parts of words, and knowledge of outstanding details. Drill in word recognition should not be carried on during this period.

Transition to the primer stage, the period when the child begins to read from other people's experiences out of a book, should be done in about four different groups. At the end of the first two weeks of school there has emerged under the teacher's observation a group of children who are ready to begin the book reading of vicarious experiences.[3] Perhaps they were prepared to do so right from the beginning, but it takes the teacher about two weeks to find out who they are. This group, which the teacher knows mentally as the "A" class (but calls by some name that does not denote class distinction) is put into the primer work. It is with intent rather than by oversight that readiness is determined by observation of the children in the actual reading situation instead of by standardized tests. Even interpreting reading readiness tests to include also vision, hearing, manual and ocular dominance, and intelligence tests, no reading readiness tests have yet been devised that can claim to predict success in reading with a correlation of even nearly 1.0, excepting where vision is so defective that reading is impossible or where intelligence is extremely low. The rest of the children remain in one large unclassified group and continue with the primer work.

At the end of two to four weeks more there is distinguished from the large group a group of children who are prepared to go into the book reading with reasonable promise of success. The teacher now has an A, B, and C group.

The C group is slow to learn, and has not acquired enough of a sight vocabulary to indicate much probability of success in reading from a book just yet. The C group is now given a group of charts, not made from their experiences but made by the authors of the primer or by the teacher, to contain the vocabulary of the book.[4] There is now much emphasis on word recognition and no chart is left until the children have had ample opportunity to drill on and demonstrate their knowledge of every word on each chart; there are also periodic reviews of charts taken up previously.

After three to six weeks of this prepared chart reading, many children in the C group are able to read continuously; but there still remain some children in this group to whom the experience of having read a particular word or phrase in several preceding charts furnishes no clue to the recognition of the same entities in a new chart, nor to the reading of the preceding chart a day later. The group that can read continuously is moved into the primer. The children who cannot read are probably too immature mentally to be ready for reading and they are given a program of activities which will furnish them with objective experiences in which they are poor. Meanwhile, they sit in with the C class in their reading activities and with the whole room in their reading experiences, more or less as spectators, contributing as much as they are able, but not being prodded to do the impossible.

Before deciding which children should constitute the experience group, it is advisable to test them again with another intelligence test. If the results of this test confirm the teacher's judgment and the original intelligence test, a decision is made. When in a particular case the test varies definitely from the teacher's estimate, the child is re-tested

[3] The intelligence test given to the children at the beginning of the semester will enable the teacher to check her judgment in the matter of grouping.

[4] This material may also be used with the average group between the pre-primer and first primer stage.

with the Stanford-Binet test. If the Binet test confirms the teacher's judgment, a low mental ability is assumed. If the difficulty is a serious personality problem, the parent is consulted and an effort is made to have the parent accept the aid of the Child Guidance Clinic of the Institute for Juvenile Research. If the difficulty is not a personality problem, the parents are asked to have the child given a very thorough physical examination. When the parent is willing but unable to have the child examined physically, the school nurse can arrange for such an examination free of charge.

This group that is unable to progress in the normal school program is given as much of an experience program as the facilities of the school and the resources available to the teacher make possible, and is limited to the experience type of reading that is characteristic of the pre-primer stage.

During the beginning primer stage greater emphasis is placed upon word recognition, even though getting thought from the printed page remains continuously the paramount aim. Furthermore, it is suggested that word recognition be taught, at least in this beginning primer stage, only as a by-product of thought getting, using matching and other supplementary drill only when the intrinsic devices are not sufficient in themselves.[5]

During this stage, word recognition is done chiefly by sight and contextual relationships. Sight devices include general configuration, recognition of similarities and differences in parts of words, peculiarities of appearance, and length. Phonetic analysis is not used at this time although the way is paved for its use by ear training, encouragement in noting similarities and differences in parts of words, attention to initial letter, and the writing lessons at the blackboard. Seatwork of the reading type is introduced during this period, and the reading materials of the pre-primer stage continue to be used in connection with the social studies, science, and the library activities. The reading type of seatwork consists of the work-book written for use with the basic text, plus material made on the duplicator to give further practice in the use of the primer vocabulary in a variety of contextual relationships, plus material pertaining to the activities of the children. It is further suggested that the teacher make a word picture dictionary on the duplicator for at least the additional words in science and the social studies.[6] This device is very desirable in connection with the vocabulary of the basic text also.

When the child has acquired a large enough sight vocabulary to include the common phonetic elements and has indicated a strong desire to read material not directly included in his class reading materials, he has the basis and the need for acquiring an independence in word recognition for which the aforementioned devices do not provide. At this time he should be introduced to the second primer stage, which has as its new features phonetic analysis[7] and the systematic use of supplementary reading books. The time at which this stage begins will vary with the three groups, but there will be less variation than there was in entering the first primer stage because the brighter children are capable of obtaining and retaining a larger vocabulary by just the sight and context methods than the duller children.

The supplementary books for this latter primer stage should consist of very easy interesting reading where the vocabulary is,

[5] See Gates, Huber, and Ayer, *The Work Play Books*, First Grade Manual, The Macmillan Company, pp. 30-40.
[6] See Towers, *Picture Method of Child Guidance in Health and Safety* and *The Work Play Books Dictionary*, Gates and Huber.
[7] It is the writer's opinion that the "intrinsic method" of teaching phonetic elements is still a system of phonetic analysis, although preferable to other methods. See Gates, Arthur I., *New Method in Primary Reading*, The Macmillan Company, pp. 165-180.

in so far as is possible, the already known vocabulary of the pupil. The so-called pre-primers of other series than the one used as the basic text can be used in addition to story books and other primers that the teacher considers easy enough. All the materials of the two previous reading stages continue to be used with a modified technique as supplementary reading material, except that charts are used only as bulletin board material and for the making of books in connection with the activities program.

Although it is the intention of the writer to keep devices out of this discussion, it may be advisable here to mention some basic principles in phonetics, even though phonetics instruction is just one of the many devices used to assist in word recognition. In spite of a great deal of disagreement among teachers as to how phonetics should be taught, there are a few basic principles that seem to be well established that should be followed:

1. Phonetic instruction should be based on the known reading vocabulary of the pupil, and should not be begun until there is a large enough sight vocabulary to use as a basis.
2. A phonetic principle should be introduced by showing the repetition of the phonetic element in many words that the pupil can read by sight.
3. Isolated phonetic elements should not be used to build up words; that is *C-AT* is not *cat*. *CAT* spells *cat* and *AT* spells *at*. However, a part of a known word may be covered up to call attention to the phonetic element.
4. After the operation indicated in number 3 has been performed, the pupil should go back to the beginning of the word, or to the sentence if the word is in context, and read it in its entirety in order to build up proper habits with respect to the left to right orientation.[8]
5. Attention to phonetic elements should be directed by so constructing the reading materials that the process of thought-getting requires attention to phonetics.[9]
6. When special phonetic instruction and drill is given it should not interrupt the reading period, but should be given at a separate time, based on the experiences of the reading period.
7. Phonetic analysis is not a system of reading, but just an important aid to word recognition; and unless it is kept in its proper relative position it will interfere with rapid and efficient getting of thought from the printed page.

At the end of the primer stage the pupil can read continuously for thought, and is ready to begin systematic work in devoting this ability to a variety of specific purposes. Reading for special purposes becomes then the new feature of the 1A course in reading, to be added to the preceding features which are continued. In addition to the basic reader and its related supplementary material, the child now begins to learn to use other types of books. He uses a study reader to learn the study reading skills, the silent reader of the informational type, the dramatic reader for its obvious purposes, the literary reader for pleasure, and the content subject readers, all with specific guidance from the teacher for each specific purpose. Fortunately, there are on the market at present all these varieties of readers, and by the cooperation of all the teachers who can use the same material, it is possible to procure all of them gradually. Most of these supplementary books have sufficient pedagogic aids incorporated in them so that a great part of the work with them can be handled independently by the pupils while the teacher is giving instruction to some other group in the room. This also relieves the teacher of making seatwork for these

[8] See Gates, Arthur I., *The Improvement of Reading*, Revised Edition, The Macmillan Company, 1935, p. 358.

[9] See Hardy, Marjorie, *My Workbook in Phonics*, Wheeler Publishing Company.
Gates, Arthur I., *Preparatory Books to the Work Play Series*, first and second grade. The Macmillan Company.

study periods. Consequently, in the 1A grade, the only necessary home-made reading seatwork outside of that used for special activities is the published book that comes with the basic reader series.

It must be reiterated in passing that, starting with the first reader period, a supplementary reader takes on a different character from that which it had when it first began to be used in the latter part of the primer period. During the primer period the supplementary reader is merely more easy reading of the same type, in which the pupils receive practice in reading the known vocabulary in a variety of contextual relationships. Starting with the first reader period, and continuing as long as reading instruction as such is given, the supplementary reader gives practice in reading for one or more of the many specific purposes for which reading instruction is given. Even when the newspaper enters the reading or social studies curriculum it is a supplementary reader designed to provide material for instruction in a particular type of reading; this type, parenthetically, is one in which the people in general are in much need of good instruction.

The second grade is the period of rapid progress in fundamental habits of recognition, and the place to stress reading for specific purposes. The teacher must understand clearly—and carry that understanding over into her methodology—that reading requires many specific abilities rather than one generalized ability. A child may be very efficient in reading to appreciate the general significance of a paragraph, and very inefficient in reading to follow specific directions, and almost totally ignorant of scanning. The child may not know how to use a table of contents unless he is specifically taught, and the ability to read orally with proper enunciation and grouping of words does not follow from the ability to get thought from the printed page. The foregoing suggest only a few of the many specific silent and oral reading abilities. By the end of the second grade the child should have learned phonetics sufficiently well for all ordinary purposes of reading, so that the third grade teacher may look upon phonetics instruction as a remedial device in certain special cases. Seatwork in which the published book that goes with the reader and special material in connection with vital activities is still used, as well as the bulletin board and slides. A well executed program of reading in the first two grades will enable a third grade pupil to begin using textbooks in the content subjects, and to read voluntarily with interest and for pleasure.

In suggesting the foregoing program the writer has deliberately said nothing about the relative merits of oral and silent reading because they are both essential to proper training in reading, each for its own purposes. When the child is first acquiring a reading vocabulary, oral reading in which one child reads aloud while the rest of the group look on at their books seems necessary to connect the appearance of the word with the sound. After the child has acquired a reading vocabulary and his silent reading rate begins to exceed his oral reading rate, such a procedure carried out generally would be distinctly deleterious. This does not cover by any manner of means the uses of oral reading, but is given merely as an example to indicate the proper and improper use of a particular type of oral reading. To leave out or neglect either oral or silent reading is to train in only some of the necessary reading abilities, and in order to avoid expanding this paper to book length, no discussion is given of even the major abilities for which each kind of reading trains.

It has been implied in this paper that there will be ability grouping in reading. Ability grouping can have no excuse for

being unless it is for the purpose of differentiating methods, materials, and rate—not for reward or punishment. Furthermore, even when the pupils are divided for the purposes of reading into classes according to attainment in reading, whenever a particular activity can be carried on with all groups together, such an arrangement is preferable; and individual instruction and materials are still essential.

Wherever a grade designation is used in the foregoing program, it is just a matter of convenience for both writer and reader. It is not intended at all that a given pupil will necessarily be in the grade corresponding to the grade of reading he is doing. Promotions will depend not on progress in reading for the first two years, but on length of residence in school, with slight modifications.

Regular promotions are given to all pupils in grades 1B to 2B inclusive,[10] with a few exceptions. Mental defectives and pupils who have been absent so much of the time that they cannot be considered members of the class are retained. Pupils so seriously handicapped physically that progress cannot be made are retained. Pupils so bright that the teacher is unable to provide sufficient enrichment for them to keep them profitably interested are accelerated. This does not mean that we pretend that all the pupils who have been regularly promoted have completed the normal work for the semester.

The 1B pupils who are promoted to 1A at the end of the first semester are classified into three ability groups: one group that has finished only the pre-primer work, another group that has finished the first primer stage, and a third group that has finished the normal work of the 1B grade. The primary instruction method makes provision for permitting three or more ability groups in each room. At the end of the first year those that are regularly promoted fall into three groups: one that has finished the first primer stage, one that has finished the second primer stage or a little more, and a third group that has finished the normal year's work. At the end of 2B the same relative situation obtains, although some children who were originally slow in getting started are now in a group that is more advanced than the original group they were in.

The end of the 2A grade is the stopping point, on the basis of scholastic attainment. The pupils have had two years in addition to their kindergarten experience in which to become adjusted to the school, and the teachers have become well acquainted with the pupils and their background. A battery of reading tests like the Gates Primary Reading Test is administered, and any pupil retarded a half year or more in reading is kept in the 2A grade a second semester. If he appears to be a mental defective, from his group intelligence test and the teacher's judgment, he will be referred to the Bureau of Child Study for examination and disposal of his case. After his second semester in the 2A grade he will go on to 3B or a special division for retarded children.

Summary of Data Concerning Results

In the data on promotions the following items are most important:

1. There are less than half as many failures in 1B under the present plan compared with the former. The failure rate of about 7½ per cent in 1B cannot be reduced much because most of these failures are only statistical failures. The pupils whom these failures represent have been absent so much of the time that they can hardly be considered members, even though they

[10] "If there is ever any justification for a pupil's repeating the first grade or a semester of that grade, it is when repeating the work of that grade will contribute more to the pupil's learning of reading than would individual treatment in the second grade." Mort, Paul R., *The Individual Pupil*, American Book Company, 1928, p. 171.

happen to have been present at the end of the semester.

2. There are about four-fifths as many failures in 1A under the present plan.
3. The promotion rate in 2B is smaller now, but the failure rate is no larger. It was formerly customary to grant double promotions to several children in grade 2B. Under the present plan we give double promotions only when we cannot enrich the work sufficiently to keep the gifted pupils with children of their own age.
4. There are more than twice as many failures in 2A under the present plan. Since pupils are stopped on the basis of scholarship at the end of 2A for the first time, this is to be expected.
5. The per cent of progress in 1B to 2A inclusive is only slightly better under the present plan than formerly. There is not enough difference to be significant. However, if we eliminate from our figures the excessive number of double promotions that were formerly given in 2B, we find that there is a definite reduction in the per cent of failures under the new plan for grades 1B to 2A inclusive.
6. About three-fourths of the failures in the third grade have been eliminated under the new plan. Apparently, the third grade teachers think that the pupils are now better prepared for third grade work than they were formerly (their judgment is confirmed by the test data).

In order to be promoted from 2A to 3B in our school, a pupil must achieve grade 2.5 on the whole battery of Gates Primary Reading Tests three weeks before the close of the semester. This is the time of the year when the median Gates standard pupil achieves grade 2.9, or slightly less. A median of grade 2.5 is definitely higher than the first quartile of grade 2.9, on the Gates standards for all or each of the three tests in the battery.[11]

If the schools in which Gates standardized his tests were to utilize the same standards of promotion to 3B that we now use, those schools would be failing about 25 per cent of their 2A pupils. Our data shows that we fail less than 9 per cent, using this standard. This appears to agree with the judgment of the third grade teachers, as reflected in their reduced failure rate.

Our pupils have a median intelligence quotient of about 97.5, based on the results of 470 cases in 1B, 4B, 6B, and 8B from an intelligence test administered in October, 1935. Further, our school year has been curtailed so that it has been a 36-weeks school year for the past three years.

Inferences

1. An attempt has been made to relate reading to activities vital to the child, with no diminution in reading attainment, as measured by the Gates Primary Reading Tests. In fact, the tests indicate that attainment is somewhat better than usual.
2. A liberal policy of promotions, based on a definite system of liberality and accompanied by a program of instruction based on the attainment level of the child, irrespective of the grade he is in, has resulted in a reduction in failures. This reduction has been accompanied by no decrease in attainment. The results of standardized tests, reinforced by the judgments of the teachers who have the children the following year, indicate an improvement in attainment.
3. The program indicated above has helped the teachers to acquire, or to improve, an attitude toward children that causes one to think of a pupil as a child whose personality development is the proper aim of education.
4. The gains made seem to justify further study of the program started, with a view to improving this particular program and refining its techniques.
5. A more adequate program of testing seems to be warranted.

[11] Gates, Arthur I., *Manual of Directions for Gates Primary Reading Tests.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1935, pp. 31-34.

A DIAGNOSTIC AND REMEDIAL PROGRAM IN READING

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Carlyle states that about all the school does for the child from kindergarten through the university is to teach him how to read. It may be truthfully said, however, that the school does not succeed in teaching all children how to read. Failures permeate our school system from first grade through the university and no doubt the most common cause of these failures is the inability to read with understanding.

Percival[1] found the first grade to be the grade of greatest failure; approximately thirty per cent of school failures in cities are in this grade; about twenty-four per cent of school failures in rural districts are also in this grade. About ninety-nine per cent of those failing in the first grade in cities and approximately ninety-five per cent of those failing in the first grade in rural districts fail because of deficiencies in reading.

About ninety per cent of the pupils failing in second grade fail because of deficiencies in reading. Of those not promoted in the third grade, sixty-eight per cent were kept back because of reading disabilities; in fourth grade the failures because of reading disabilities were fifty-six per cent; in fifth grade, forty per cent, in sixth grade, thirty-three per cent, and in seventh and eighth grades, twenty-five per cent. Accordingly, it is evident that remedial work in reading should be carefully applied in the elementary school in order that the child may be trained to succeed and not to fail.

THE WALSH EXPERIMENT

Because of the need for remedial reading in the entire school system, Dr. William H. Johnson, Superintendent of the Chicago city schools, directed that three clinics be set up in three of the elementary schools. One of the schools named was the Walsh Elementary, and the writer was placed in charge of the diagnostic and remedial reading program.

It was decided to begin work with the children in grades four to eight. The director has spent, on the average, nearly one day a week during the experiment supervising the work, explaining the procedures, and assisting in trying out new materials and methods. Each week a clinical meeting was held for the staff and another meeting for visitors. These meetings have been well attended. One hundred and fifty of the Chicago principals attended one of the meetings. On two or three of the days there were nearly one hundred visitors, mostly teachers and principals of the Chicago city system. In addition, every one of the teachers engaged in the experiment was enrolled in a class in Clinical Methods in Reading, which met once a week, so that there has been oppor-

[1] Percival, Walter P., *A Study of the Causes and Subjects of School Failure*, unpublished doctor's dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.

tunity for common understanding of procedures and materials.

Exceedingly fine cooperation has been given by Principal Earl Koehler, the teachers of the Walsh School, and several others in the system. Assistance from the Child Study Department was particularly helpful in the work.

Of the 376 children in grades four to eight, 125 were found to be retarded in reading from two months to more than four years, according to results of reading tests given. These children were given remedial procedures which fitted the diagnosis made of each of them. The following principles were kept in mind in connection with the work: (1) diagnosis must be followed by effective remedial work; (2) remedial work must be fitted to the needs and applied to the defects of each individual child; (3) prevention of defects is even more important in the long run than remedial work; (4) motivation of a high type must pervade all work.

Diagnosis

Generally when it is desired to make practical diagnoses of great numbers of children, group tests are used. In extreme cases, of course, individual tests must be given. In so far as it is possible, diagnosis should cover the whole child—his physical, mental, emotional, and social aspects. Diagnosis in the Walsh school was at the best tentative, because of changes from week to week; the child's interests changed, his abilities varied, old defects were overcome; new deficiencies developed in changing situations. The records showed many changes in individuals as the program developed.

The diagnosis in this experiment of the physical equipment of the children was made in the first place by the classroom teacher. The teacher in each case observed and considered the general health, the eye movements, visual acuity, hearing, and so on of each individual in the remedial group. If, in a group of forty, the teacher found ten children who, in her opinion, did not measure up to the visual and aural standards, these children after careful observation were referred to the principal for further study. He in turn obtained the necessary medical attention. In the case of questionable vision, the Telebinocular was used to diagnose eye defects by a member of the staff of the Child Study Department. The Snellen tests were used to find defects. If a child was found to have defective vision, he was given medical aid either upon the initiative of the parents or of the school authorities. In cases of hearing disability, the teachers have made several adjustments which have proved helpful. In cases of general debility, the school physician has cooperated; in cases of malnutrition or lack of food, warm lunches have been served at an extremely low cost.

One teacher, a visitor, who was extremely well pleased with the work of the clinic, criticized pointedly the lack of physical diagnosis. In spite of the imperfections of the method, however, children were helped tremendously. What is being done at Walsh can be done in any school if there is a will to do the most possible for retarded children. It is true that the methods of the Walsh Clinic are not of the laboratory type of procedure, but the Walsh methods are practical. They are methods which it is hoped will show the way to many teachers and principals who desire to do the greatest possible good in the crowded conditions generally found in the ordinary elementary school.

The mental diagnosis consisted chiefly in the group examination by means of the Kuhlmann-Anderson tests. Each remedial case was examined carefully and from the point scores the intelligence quotients were

derived. The intelligence quotients among the Walsh remedial cases ranged between 70 and 110. The average intelligence quotient of the remedial cases was 89.79.

Two silent reading examinations were used in this clinic. The New Stanford gave the general level of reading achievement. The Gates Four-Type indicated the defects in: (1) reading to appreciate the general significance; (2) reading to predict outcomes; (3) reading to understand precise directions; (4) reading to note details. Often a child who was up to level in reading to appreciate the general significance was one or two years retarded in reading to understand precise directions; or a child who was only one year retarded in reading to predict outcomes was three years retarded in reading to note details. Not only the general level of reading ability and an average of the deficiencies in the Gates Four-Type Reading were noted, but each specific difficulty was recorded in order that silent reading procedures might be applied to the defects of each child. Gray's Oral Reading Paragraphs were given to each retarded child and deficiencies were recorded for guidance. The Witty Interest Inventory was used to find the likes and dislikes, the interests and activities of each child. It was found by means of this inventory that a teacher often came to know immediately more about a child than she had learned about him in a year of the ordinary class contact.

Even more important, perhaps, than the use of any other one device was the emphasis placed on utilizing the teacher's observations continuously from day to day. Each teacher not only in the diagnostic portion of the work but also throughout the remedial program observed the attention and non-attention, interest and lack of interest, activity and passivity, habits of work and play, and the change of attitudes and interests. That careful observation by the classroom teacher is a most vital asset in both diagnosis and remedial work is increasingly evident to the writer. A good teacher is the best of all agents in treating remedial cases in reading.

Diagnosis accordingly was approached from three viewpoints: in the first place, deficiencies and disabilities were observed; in the second place, abilities and talents were uncovered; and in the third place, interests and activities were found. It was stressed over and over again by the director that the diagnosis made and recorded for each child was not final, but that it was a tentative record which could and would be changed from day to day as observation, testing, inspection, and scrutiny proceeded continuously.

Remedial Procedure

Remedial work was applied to meet the interests and defects of each child on his ability level. The findings of physical examinations, mental examinations, silent and oral reading examinations, interest inventories, and observation were carefully considered in the remedial procedures. Before remedial work was begun, interest was carefully regarded, intelligence quotients were considered, mental and chronological ages noted, oral reading records observed, and silent reading records scrutinized so that each child might be helped according to his needs and so that his defects might be most effectively eliminated.

Recreational and work-type reading were supplied for each child. If a child had difficulty in one of the types of reading, he was given assistance in that type to eliminate the defects which kept him back. So that he might know the effect of his labors, reading scores were recorded and progress was shown in a variety of ways. In meeting the various problems of each child, several types of procedure and devices were needed. The materials used were generally chosen so that the

child could succeed reasonably well. Easy materials were picked for the first lessons and materials continuously increasing in difficulty were used as the work progressed. Always it was a principle in this clinic that success is satisfying and failure annoying. However, from time to time each child was challenged to extend himself to the limit of his ability. Generally each child was taught on a level of difficulty on which he was capable of achieving and he was given materials that he was interested in studying.

In order to supply each child with interesting materials at his particular difficulty level, the *Children's Bookshelf* (Ginn and Company) was used. The assignments were made individually; each child read what he liked best. After he had finished a story he was given the opportunity to write critical statements about the story. He was told that anything he wrote on the reading record sheet would not be used in grading. Children often indicated that they would like to read more stories similar to the ones just finished. They sometimes frankly stated reasons for not liking stories.

The *Weekly Reader* (American Educational Press) gave rich materials of current interest. Each week the children looked forward eagerly to the coming of this paper. The articles interested them so that they were encouraged to read further in other sources about certain topics of interest.

The *Unit Study Books* (American Educational Press) were utilized at the appropriate level of each child's ability and in accord with his interests in various ways. The content of these readers is so interesting that the children regarded them more as recreational than work-type materials. Often, however, lessons were planned so that the child would use several of the books in his study of a particular problem.

The *Gates-Peardon* and *McCall-Crabbs* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University) materials were used effectively to remedy certain specific defects which had been discovered previously in the different individuals. The exercises of these materials are brief and pointed. The child saw his improvement from day to day and week to week and so, of course, profited by observed success in them.

A library was organized to which the remedial groups were taken once a week. Whole sets of new and well-illustrated materials were shown to the children. Browsing was permitted. Each child's attention was directed by the teacher to valuable materials which would be of interest to him.

Among the other materials used were: *The Friendly Hour Series* (American Book Company); *The Rugg Social Science Series* (Ginn and Company); *The Modern World Series* (Johnson Publishing Company); *The Happy Hour Series* (Johnson Publishing Company); *Building America* (Society for Curriculum Study); *Current Events; Picture Scripts* (Edward Stearn Company); *Alice and Jerry Books* (Row, Peterson); *Petersham Series* (John C. Winston Company); and *Real Life Stories* (The Macmillan Company).

In the work of the remedial groups all materials and methods pointed to one or more of the main aims in reading: (1) rich and varied experience; (2) strong motives for and permanent interests in reading; (3) desirable attitudes and effective habits. In no sense, in all this diagnostic and remedial program, did either teacher or director forget the importance of preventive measures. While the remedial work was being effectively carried on, preventive measures were just as efficiently taken. The teachers imparted their enthusiasm to the children and enthusiasm was contagious. Confidence, courage, and success soon began to offset nervousness, fear, and failure. The materials were really graded to each child's difficulties

and abilities. *Pacing* was practiced. By directing work on a difficulty level of which the child was capable and to materials in which he was interested, he began to succeed. Success brought more success and greater success. At first the materials and the problems were of low difficulty but nevertheless challenging in their interest. Gradually they became more and more difficult as the child's ability increased.

Plan of Administration

The remedial reading work was carried on individually and in small groups. Of the one hundred and twenty-five remedial cases, fifty were taught by a special adjustment or remedial reading teacher in groups of approximately ten. Each group was given forty minutes of instruction daily. The other seventy-five children were taught daily by the regular classroom teachers; these groups averaged also about ten in number. Sometimes there was work which was interesting to the group and fitted to the level ability of the group; generally the material was assigned on the basis of each child's individual needs and deficiencies and in accord with his individual interests.

Results

A few of the statistical findings may be of interest and value to readers who wish to know what can be accomplished in such a manner. The children were tested in October with Form 1 of the Gates Four-Type Test. They were tested again in January with the comparable Form 3 of the same test. The teaching period was about three and one-half months. At the end of the period the average gain made in silent reading was approximately 6.6 months for the 106 pupils who were present for the second test.

It is interesting to note that 30 pupils with an average obtained I.Q. of 85.03 in the Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Test, who were retarded on an average of 2.72 years in reading, made an average gain of 7.03 months in the three and one-half month period; that 45 pupils with an average obtained I.Q. of 88.2, who were retarded on the average of 1.45 years, made a gain of 6.91 months; and that the 31 pupils with an average retardation of 0.61 years, with an average obtained I.Q. of 93.4, made a gain of 4.65 months. Thus it seems that the children who were handicapped the most and who had the lowest I.Q.'s made the greatest gains.

Compelling interests in learning were developed. The crux of this whole program was interest but not silly, foolish interests. Interest is an instrument, for good or bad; it must be so understood by the teacher. Interest, therefore, must be guided and directed to values that are good. In the work here, interests were directed to fascinating values in literature and life and to materials which answer questions and solve problems. The present interests of the child were used as a basic starting point for the development of interest in real values. The child thought, evaluated material, and pondered as he read.

The children's interests were found to be varied and those interests have been utilized. The pupils became actively interested in success, in improvement, in challenging problems, and in happiness. The work in the Walsh School has been made so interesting that the children have considered it an honor to be in the remedial classes. Teachers, too, feel that to teach a child to read who could not read and to teach one to read efficiently who read poorly are human and thrilling achievements.

TYPES OF READING MATTER CONTAINED IN READERS PUBLISHED OVER A PERIOD OF TWENTY YEARS

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The statement is often made that schoolbooks of today are very different from those of a generation ago. A casual glance at primary readers will substantiate this statement at least in regard to the illustrations. How far it is true concerning the reading matter is not so readily determined. The purpose of this study was to discover whether or not there has been an appreciable change in the content of readers over a period of twenty years. In order to ascertain the degree and nature of change, the writer made a study of the materials contained in the following second grade readers published from 1916 to 1936:

Franklin T. Baker, Ashley H. Thorndike, and Mildred Batchelder, *Everyday Classics*. The Macmillan Company, 1931.

James Baldwin and Ida C. Bender, *The Expressive Readers*. American Book Company, 1911.

Emma Miller Bolenius, *The Boys' and Girls' Readers*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923.

Hetty S. Browne, Sarah Withers, and W. K. Tate, *The Child's World*. Johnson Publishing Company, 1917.

Catherine T. Bryce and Rose Lees Hardy, *Newson Readers*. Newson and Co., 1927.

Georgine Burchill, William L. Ettinger, and Edgar Dubs Shimer, *The Progressive Road to Reading*. Silver, Burdett and Company, 1909, 1920.

Guy Thomas Buswell and William Henry Wheeler, *The Silent Reading Hour*. Wheeler Publishing Company, 1923.

Gail Calmerton and William H. Wheeler, *Wheeler's Graded Readers*. W. H. Wheeler and Company, 1903.

Ida Coe and Alice J. Christie, *Story Hour Readers*. American Book Company, 1914.

Ida Coe and Alice Christie Dillon, *Story Hour Readers* (Revised). American Book Company, 1914, 1923.

Bessie Blackstone Coleman, Willis L. Uhl, and James Fleming Hosic, *The Pathway to Reading*. Silver, Burdett and Company, 1925.

William H. Elson, *Elson Primary School Reader*. Scott, Foresman and Company, 1912, 1913.

William H. Elson and Lura E. Runkel, *The Elson Readers*. Scott, Foresman and Company, 1920.

William H. Elson and Lura E. Runkel, *Child-Library Readers*. Scott, Foresman and Company, 1925.

William H. Elson and William S. Gray, *The Elson Basic Readers*. Scott, Foresman and Company, 1931.

Sidney G. Firman and Ethel H. Maltby, *The Winston Readers*. The John C. Winston Company, 1918.

Sidney G. Firman and Ethel Maltby Gehres, *The New Winston Readers*. The John C. Winston Company, 1929.

Frank N. Freeman, Grace E. Storm, Eleanor M. Johnson, and W. C. French, *Child-Story Readers*. Lyons and Carnahan, 1927.

Arthur I. Gates and Miriam Blanton Huber, *The Work-Play Books*. The Macmillan Company, 1930.

Mathilde C. Gecks, Charles E. Skinner, and John W. Withers, *Story and Study Readers*. Johnson Publishing Company, 1928.

Marjorie Hardy, *The Child's Own Way Series*. Wheeler Publishing Company, 1926.

Rose Lees Hardy and Geneva Johnston Hecox, *Good Companions*. Newson and Company, 1931.

Martha Adelaide Holton, Mina Holton Page, and Charles Madison Curry, *Holton-Curry Readers*. Rand McNally and Company, 1914.

William D. Lewis, Albert Lindsay Rowland, and Ethel Maltby Gehres, *The Silent Readers*. The John C. Winston Company, 1924.

William Dodge Lewis, Albert Lindsay Rowland, and Ethel Maltby Gehres, *The New Silent Readers*. The John C. Winston Company, 1931.

Cora M. Martin and Patty Smith Hill, *Real Life Readers*. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1930.

Mary E. Pennell and Alice M. Cusack, *The Children's Own Readers*. Ginn and Company, 1929.

Carrie J. Smith, *The Easy Road to Reading*. Lyons and Carnahan, 1917.

Frank E. Spaulding and Catherine T. Bryce, *Aldine Readers*. Newson and Company, 1907, 1918.

Clarence R. Stone, *Stone's Silent Reading*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925.

Henry Suzzallo, George E. Freeland, Katherine L. McLaughlin, and Ada M. Skinner, *Fact and Story Readers*. American Book Company, 1930.

Harriette Taylor Treadwell and Margaret Free, *Reading-Literature*. Row, Peterson and Company, 1912.

Letters were written to various well-known textbook publishers asking which second readers were their "best sellers" in each of the following time intervals: 1916-1920, 1921-1925, 1926-1930, and 1931-1935. Several books maintain their popularity over a period of ten years or more, as is shown in Table I.

The classification of material, i.e., fable, folk tale, etc., is that used in the texts.

TABLE I

READERS WHICH WERE POPULAR IN THE DIFFERENT PERIODS

1916–1920	Date of Copyright	1921–1925	Date of Copyright
Aldine Readers	1907–18	Aldine Readers	1907–18
The Child's World	1917	The Child's World	1917
The Easy Road to Reading	1917	The Easy Road to Reading	1917
Elson Primary School Reader	1912–13	The Elson Readers	1920
The Expressive Readers	1911	Everyday Classics	1922
Holton-Curry Readers	1914	Holton-Curry Readers	1914
The Progressive Road to Reading	1909–20	The Progressive Road to Reading	1909–20
Reading-Literature	1912	Reading-Literature	1912
Story Hour Readers	1914	Story Hour Readers	1914
Wheeler's Graded Reader	1903	The Silent Reading Hour	1923
The Winston Readers	1918	The Silent Readers	1924
1926–1930		**1931–1935**	
Newson Readers	1927	Good Companions	1931
The Child's World	1917	Story and Study Readers	1928
Child-Story Readers	1927	Child-Story Readers	1927
Child-Library Readers	1925	The Elson Basic Readers	1931
Everyday Classics	1922	The Work-Play Books	1930
The Boys' and Girls' Readers	1923	The Children's Own Readers	1929
The Pathway to Reading	1925	The Pathway to Reading	1925
Stone's Silent Reading	1925	Real Life Readers	1930
Story Hour Readers, Revised	1923	Fact and Story Readers	1930
The Child's Own Way Series	1926	The Child's Own Way Series	1926
The New Winston Readers	1929	The New Silent Readers	1931

TABLE II

AMOUNT OF MATERIAL DEVOTED TO THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF SELECTIONS IN READERS PUBLISHED 1916-1935

Classification	Per cent of total content given to topic in each period			
	1916–1920	1921–1925	1926–1930	1931–1935
Animal stories	5.0	4.5	11.8	13.5
Bird stories	4.0	3.1	1.1	2.2
Nature stories	2.0	1.4	3.4	3.0
Fairy tales	23.6	23.3	17.4	14.2
Folk tales	27.2	25.4	15.4	9.5
Legends	0.4	0.2	0.7	0.4
Myths	1.4	0.6	0.8	0.2
Fables	6.1	5.3	3.7	1.4
Other fanciful stories	4.9	4.6	9.2	8.3
Realistic stories	3.3	7.0	9.2	9.9
Informational material not in story form	0.5	0.5	2.0	3.7
Social studies	2.0	8.1	11.0	21.6
Holiday stories	2.6	2.6	3.6	5.7
Miscellaneous	2.7	0.8	1.2	0.7
Poems	14.3	12.6	9.5	5.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Where the text made no classification, as in realistic stories, the nature of the content was determined by deciding what the story meant to tell or emphasize. Illustrations which explain or supplement the printed page were included.

Table II shows that the most popular second readers published in 1916-20 contained folk and fairy tales, fables, legends, and myths to the extent of 58.7 per cent. The books of 1931-35 contain 25.7 per cent. While the amount of space given to fanciful stories has been decreasing, the proportion of realistic stories including informational material and everyday experiences of children has been increasing from 3 per cent to 14 per cent in twenty years.

The field of the social studies shows outstanding growth. In books published in 1916-20 only 2 per cent of the content was centered around the social studies; by 1936 this proportion had increased to 22 per cent.

The extent to which children today read the stories which were read by children twenty years ago is shown in Table III. It is interesting to note that Æsop's Fables retained their place in readers until 1930 and then suddenly dropped during the next five years. Fifteen of Grimm's stories were found in texts of twenty years ago and only six in readers of today. His story, "The Elves and the Shoemaker," is still holding its own, as is Hans Christian Andersen's "The Bear Who Played Soldier." Twenty years ago children in second grades would read twenty-one of Christina Rossetti's poems; today they read only four. Robert Louis Stevenson has fared better: eleven of his poems are found in second readers of 1931-35, thirty-seven in those of 1916-20. His poems still appear more frequently in second readers than do those of any other poet.

It is a matter of speculation whether or not this same trend in textbooks will continue in the next five years. After gathering the above data and noting the diminishing amount of space given to the literary type of material, the writer analyzed the following

nine second readers having copyright dates of 1934 or later:

Mildred English and Thomas Alexander, *Happy Hour Readers*. Johnson Publishing Company, 1935.
Katherine E. Dopp, May Pitts, and S. C. Garrison, *Happy Road to Reading*. Rand McNally and Company, 1935.
Nila Banton Smith, *The Unit-Activity Reading Series*. Silver Burdett Company, 1935.
Grace E. Storm, *Guidance in Reading Series*. Lyons and Carnahan, 1936.
Mabel O'Donnell and Alice Carey, *The Alice and Jerry Books*. Row, Peterson, 1936.
Ullin W. Leavell, Elizabeth G. Breckinridge, Mary Browning, and Hattie Follis, *The Friendly Hour*. American Book Company, 1935 and 1936.
B. R. Buckingham, *The Children's Bookshelf*. Ginn and Company, 1934.
Clara Belle Baker, Mary Maud Reed, and Edna Dean Baker, *The Curriculum Readers*. Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1934.
Julia M. Harris, *The Child Development Readers*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935.

Some interesting findings are shown in Table IV. The amount of classical or traditional literature has dropped to less than 2 per cent of the total content. No fairy tales were found in these nine books; only four folk tales, one of Christina Rossetti's poems and three by Robert Louis Stevenson are included in these books.

Summary

The significant findings of this study are: (1) the increasing importance of social studies as textbook material. From a 2 per cent contribution in the books of 1916-20 this amount had increased to 22 per cent by 1936, and the nine readers of 1934-36 contain such material to the extent of 35 per cent—more than one-third of the total content. (2) The proportion of realistic stories, including the everyday experiences of children and informational material not in story form, has been increasing from 3 per cent in 1916 to 14 per

TABLE III

Authors Contributing to Four or More Books

Authors	Number of selections in books of each period			
	1916–20	1921–25	1926–30	1931–35
Æsop	26	28	24	4
Andersen, Hans Christian	7	7	9	4
Bangs, John Kendrick	2	2	2	1
Bailey, Carolyn Sherwin	2	3	8	8
Brown, Abbie Farwell	0	1	3	2
Cooper, George	6	5	2	0
Dodge, Mary Mapes	2	2	5	0
Fyleman, Rose	0	0	6	9
Grimm Brothers	15	18	11	6
Larcom, Lucy	4	2	1	0
Lindsay, Maude	4	5	7	7
Lindsay, Vachel	0	1	1	3
Mother Goose	12	12	3	0
Perrault, Charles	2	0	3	0
Rhyme, Old	1	2	3	2
Roberts, Elizabeth Madox	0	0	2	4
Rossetti, Christina	21	25	21	4
Schauffler, Robert H	1	2	1	1
Stevenson, Robert Louis	37	36	25	11
Taylor, Jane	3	3	2	0
Tennyson, Alfred Lord	3	3	0	0
Wynne, Annette	0	2	1	6

cent at the end of 1935. The readers of 1934-36 contain twice this proportionate amount. (3) The greatest change in primary readers in twenty years has been the decreasing amount of literary or traditional type of material. This type of material constituted more than half (58 per cent) of the total content of the second readers of 1916-20; at the end of 1935 the amount had dropped to 26 per cent, and in nine readers of 1934-36 to less than 2 per cent of the total content.

Of the reading material which the seven-year-old found in his textbook twenty years ago, two-thirds was of the fanciful or imaginative type, one-tenth animal and nature stories, and one-seventh poems. The child of today reads more widely; his textbook contains a balanced diet of the fanciful and realistic. The second reader of today is composed of realistic and informative stories, 35 per cent; fanciful or imaginative stories, 34 per cent; holiday stories, 6 per cent; and poems, 5 per cent.

If the popular second readers of 1936-40 follow the same trend as the nine readers summarized in Table IV, traditional literature will have disappeared entirely from second grade readers in less than ten years. This does not necessarily mean a loss—it may prove to be a blessing. Alice Dalgliesh[1] says, "We have been most unfortunate in our approach to folk tales in the schools. They have been used in readers, simplified and bereft of anything that makes them literature." Perhaps this type of material will be read and enjoyed more when it is found in books which are read for pleasure only and not in books used in learning to read.

It does, however, place a great responsibility upon everyone who is intrusted with the selection of children's reading matter. If the child of today is to be acquainted with the literary inheritance of the ages he must be provided with books of this sort. If textbooks of the future are to contain no traditional literature, it is more important than ever that children's libraries be completely equipped with books of this sort. In books, the child should have the best of the old as well as the best of the new.

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF MATERIAL IN NINE RECENT READERS

Classification	Per cent of total content given to topic
Animal stories	12.8
Bird stories	1.7
Nature stories	0.9
Fairy tales	0.0
Folk tales	1.2
Legends	0.0
Myths	0.0
Fables	0.1
Other fanciful stories	6.3
Realistic stories	28.7
Social studies material	34.7
Informational material not in story form	3.5
Holiday stories	5.2
Miscellaneous	1.2
Poems	3.7
Total	100.0

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A CLASSROOM EXPERIMENT IN TEACHING READING AND ARITHMETIC THROUGH GAMES

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From the amusing incidents our grandparents tell concerning the spelling bee and other forms of contests, we suspect that the master in the little log schoolhouse was not without a certain appreciation of the instructional values of play. Froebel, Pestalozzi, Montessori, and others have advocated directed play as a basis for the experience activities used in their teaching programs. Sooner or later every teacher discovers that the spirit of play is a natural and efficient means of motivation. Teaching through play has found its way into our more progressive schools under the name of projects or experience method, and recently texts and workbooks are beginning to introduce play activities and games which provide the teacher with ways and means of stimulating interest and of varying her instruction.

GAMES FOR TEACHING READING

During the past year there have appeared a series of educational games especially designed for classroom use. These games seem to meet the needs of teachers for supplementary teaching materials because they are closely correlated with, and easily adapted to, various curriculum requirements. The series of six READ-O[1] games are built on Gates' Vocabulary List for Primary Grades, arranged according to frequency of use: Series IA contains the seventy-two words most commonly used in primary reading materials, Series IB, the seventy-two next most commonly used, Series IC, the next seventy-two, etc., so that the complete series covers nearly all of Gates' first five hundred words. By progressing through the games in consecutive order the child builds up a basic reading vocabulary as well as learning the meanings, and phrase, clause, and sentence building. ADD-O teaches and drills the hundred addition combinations and may be used also in teaching the subtraction facts by the additive method.

All of these games are based on a flashcard technique. To play, the flashcards are shuffled or stacked to correspond to any special lesson plan, and presented to the class one at a time. Each child has an individual playing card. As a flashcard is called and displayed in a flashcard-holder in front of the class, each child looks over his playing card. If he finds the word or number which corresponds to the flashcard, he covers it with a token. The first child to fill a horizontal, vertical, or diagonal row on his card with tokens calls "READ-O" or "ADD-O" as the case may be. By a simple method the class and teacher check the child. If he has put his tokens over the correct words or numbers, he wins the game. The playing cards are so arranged that in every game each child has an opportunity to get several tokens on his card, and not

[1] READ-O, Series IA and IB, first half of Grade I.
READ-O, Series IC and ID, second half of Grade I.
READ-O, Series IIA and IIB, Grade II.
Augsburg Publishing Company, Morristown, Tennessee, 1936, 1937.

more than two can win at one time. As a game may be played in two to four minutes, there is a chance for a large percentage of the class to win during the play period. The games are constructed so all children have an equal chance of winning; neither the dull nor the bright child is penalized. There are many variations in using the games, and the spirit of play is easily maintained so that learning takes place incidental to the play activity.

During the fall and winter months the author has used READ-O Series IA and IB and ADD-O Series IA and IB in the second grade, and has kept a careful record of progress made by the class while using the games. The following discussion gives the results of this classroom experiment carried on at the Elm Street School, Erwin, Tennessee.

The class of thirty-one children began the second grade work in September, and are fairly representative of the average second grade in the public schools of Erwin and other similar urban sections of the state. The average I. Q. rating for the class, according to the Dearborn IA Intelligence Test, was 107.5, with a range of 62-138. In comparison with schools of the country at large, the class is nearly average in size and slightly above the average in general ability as measured by I.Q. At the beginning of the school year each child was tested individually with the seventy-two words on the flashcards of READ-O, IA; one flashcard, or word, was presented at a time and if the child called the word he was given the card, otherwise the teacher kept it. A record was kept of the number of words each child could immediately recognize and a chart made of the results. As these words constitute the first seventy-two in Gates' list, they should form a basic sight vocabulary for primary reading and are so commonly used that the child who does not readily recognize them is seriously handicapped in second grade work. It is interesting to note that the only word that 100% of the class knew in this list was *a*, indicating the necessity, at the beginning of the second year, for review work that will build up as quickly as possible the vocabulary loss during the summer vacation. As only one child in the class knew all of the words at the first testing, it was decided to use READ-O, IA and IB, to see how quickly second grade children re-learn a vocabulary by this method. READ-O was played twenty minutes each day as a part of the regular reading period for fifteen consecutive school days. At the end of every five days each child was tested individually with the flashcards, and his achievement recorded. At the end of fifteen days nearly all the class knew the entire list, and READ-O, IB was then introduced for the next ten days and testing procedure continued for this new list of words in the same manner.

Table I shows the results of the vocabulary tests for READ-O, IA and IB. Although the child who knew all the words at the beginning of the experiment enjoyed playing the game every day with the group, she was not included in the experiment. At the beginning of the experiment in READ-O, IA the class could recognize an average of 57% of

TABLE I

RESULTS OF VOCABULARY TESTS, READ-O, IA AND IB

	Number of Cases	Range	Score	%
READ-O, IA				
Test 1	30	13–72	41	57
Test 2	30	14–72	55	76
Test 3	30	28–72	63	88
Test 4	30	36–72	68	94
READ-O, IB				
Test 1	32	9–72	47	65
Test 2	32	16–72	59	82
Test 3	32	17–72	64	89

TABLE II

VOCABULARY GAIN IN FIVE, TEN, AND FIFTEEN DAYS

	Number of Cases	Range	Av. No. Words Gained	Av. No. Words Gained per Day
READ-O, IA				
5 Days	30	0–32	13.4	2.7
10 Days	29	6–55	24.3	2.4
15 Days	13	23–59	38.0	2.5
READ-O, IB				
5 Days	17	5–44	18.2	6.0
10 Days	9	5–60	16.2	6.2

the words. At the end of five days the average had increased to 76%, at the end of ten days to 88%, and at the end of fifteen days to 94%. At the end of fifteen days the class knew 68 of the 72 words.

In studying the vocabulary gain as shown in Table II, each child was eliminated as the testing indicated he had learned practically all the words. For example, during the first five days one child reached the maximum and was dropped from the records; during the second five days over half the class knew all the words, and at the end of the fifteen days there were only 3 children who did not know all of the 72 words. These three children knew only 13, 15, and 24 words respectively at the beginning of the experiment, and their gain during the fifteen days was 23, 36, and 41 words, which indicates the rate of progress of the three poorest pupils in the class. The class as a whole gained an average of 2.7 words a day during the first five days, 2.4 during ten days, and an average of 2.5 per day for the entire fifteen days. The range pictures the progress made by the poorest and best pupils; during the fifteen days the slowest child gained 23, or 1.5 words a day, while the brightest learned 59, or nearly 4 words a day.

Table I shows that the children knew 65% of the next seventy-two words in READ-O, IB. At the end of five days they knew 82%, and at the end of ten days the average was 89%. Studying the vocabulary gain in Table II, we find that the class learned the words in IB more than twice as fast as they did those in READ-O, IA, an average of 6.2 new words a day. As shown by the number of cases, nearly half the class knew all the words at the first testing so that only seventeen cases were used during the first five days, and this dropped down to nine during the last five days. At the end of ten days only six had failed to learn all the words.

The length of the entire experiment with READ-O, IA and IB, was twenty-five days, and the class made an average gain of nearly four words a day during this time. These data indicate that it is possible to build rapidly a basic vocabulary through an organized play activity. Other experiments have shown that vocabulary learned through the games transfers and improves reading ability as measured by standardized tests, and this group showed much improvement in general reading ability as the vocabulary was relearned through the games. Also the interest stimulated by the play situation transferred to other reading activities and helped establish a desire to read.

TABLE III

RESULTS OF TESTS ON THE HUNDRED ADDITION FACTS

	Number of Cases	Range	Score
Equation Form			
Test 1	32	1–99	69
Test 2	31	15–99	83
Test 3	32	47–100	91
Test 4	31	47–100	95
Column Form			
Test 1	32	18–100	71
Test 2	31	20–100	82
Test 3	32	38–100	91
Test 4	31	51–100	94

Games for Teaching Arithmetic

Table III gives the results of playing ADD-O while teaching the hundred addition combinations. This experiment was carried on for thirty consecutive school days during January and February, after some formal instruction had been given in developing the addition facts. Each child was tested every ten days for both equation and column forms of the hundred facts. The average score on Test 1 (equation form) was 69, and this increased to 95 on Test 4. We find the gain becomes smaller on the test scores after Test 2, due to the fact that some of the children so nearly reached the maximum on one test that the possible gain they could make before the next testing was very limited.

Table IV gives a clearer picture of the gain made in ten, twenty, and thirty days. Here the children who learned practically all the combinations were eliminated after each testing. The daily gain for the equation form is fairly consistent: 1.8 during the first ten days, 1.6 during twenty days, and 1.4 over thirty days. The daily gain for the column form was 1.7 the first ten days, 1.6 during twenty days, and 1.7 during the entire experiment. The number of children who did not know the combinations decreased from 26 in equation and 23 in column forms to 9 during the first ten days to 9 during the last ten days. At the end of thirty days only three pupils failed to learn all the combinations in equation form and four children in the column form. These children knew, however, 51, 61, 68, and 71 of the column facts, and 47, 67, and 71 of the equations.

TABLE IV

Gain in Addition Facts during Ten, Twenty, and Thirty Days

Equation Form	No. of Cases	Range	Av. No. Facts Gained	Av. No. Facts Gained per Day
10 Days	26	0–36	18.2	1.8
20 Days	15	0–71	32.2	1.6
30 Days	9	0–31	43.0	1.4
Column Form				
10 Days	23	0–44	17.4	1.7
20 Days	15	0–39	32.3	1.6
30 Days	9	0–55	50.3	1.7

There seems to be no significant difference between the scores for the equation and column forms, nor in the decrease in number of cases as the experiment progressed; also both forms show approximately the same amount of gain. This is in accord with other investigations of the difficulty of learning the combinations. Considering all the data, it seems that the children learned nearly two combinations a day by playing ADD-O. This is probably less than the class would have averaged if the brighter children had not been eliminated so early in the experiment.

Conclusion

There needs to be more experimentation by classroom teachers under classroom conditions to study the effectiveness of teaching through play and games. The progress made by this particular second grade group on relearning a basic reading vocabulary and mastering the addition combinations leads us to believe that much may be accomplished academically through this type of play activity. Even though the class might learn as rapidly by other methods, there are other factors worthy of consideration. The interest, happiness, and satisfaction which the child derives from play activities in the schoolroom may do much toward developing good mental habits and personalities.

The experiment seems to show that the children learned nearly two combinations a day. This is probably less than the class would have averaged if the brighter children could have been retained in the experiment. If the classroom teachers can secure devices

and techniques to teach the children faster, better, and in more pleasant situations, education may be advanced and the children profit from the new method of play in the schoolroom.

Summary and Conclusions

1. Every teacher has realized that play is a valuable force to be harnessed in teaching the child.
2. The educational games of READ-O and ADD-O were played twenty minutes a day for twenty-five and thirty consecutive days to supplement the reading and arithmetic instruction in the second grade.
3. The class gained an average of 2.5 words each day for 15 days and 6.2 words a day for the last ten days of the experiment.
4. There was a marked improvement in the reading of the entire class from the results of the gain in vocabulary during the experiment.
5. The educational game of READ-O seems to be an excellent device for drill purposes and for developing an immediate recognition of words in the teaching of reading.
6. The average child in the second grade learned 1.65 addition combinations each day playing the game of ADD-O.
7. There seems to be no significant difference in the learning of the equation and column forms of the 100 combinations in the game.
8. Interest in the games increased as the experiment progressed; the children still enjoy playing the games after they have learned all the words and arithmetic combinations.
9. This experiment indicates that teaching may be made easier and learning more effective through some form of play activity in the classroom.

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EDUCATIVE METHODS RELATIVE TO INTELLIGENCE AND CHARACTER DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN CHILDREN[1]

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The nature of this Congress of Child Psychiatry suggests that the approach to the problem of *methods* is from the psychiatric base and frontier. Indeed, it is only from this angle that I humbly espouse this opportunity to reflect and organize my thoughts primarily as a psychiatrist who has worked in daily intimate contact with professional educators for over a five-year period. This experience in sharing problems of pupil maladjustment and educational deviates has been invaluable in gaining insight and grasp of professional educational attitudes, approaches, objectives, policies, and biases, as well as methodology. It is from this vantage point of experience that I wish to express myself. Concern is not merely with what is being attempted and achieved, but particularly from the horizon of possible melioristic, if not new, ways of utilizing methods in relation to pupil needs in varying types and degrees of educational growth and social adjustment.

OBJECTIVES OF METHODS

A discussion of methods would have no rational basis unless we ask the question: Methods for what? In other words, our mode of investigation or order of procedure should be in relation to clearly defined aims and objectives. Obviously, methods vary contingent upon goals striven after; this suggests the need of a comprehensive conception of education. Methodology is not only shaped and pointed by our sense of changing values in a world of social change and by our philosophy of education, but indeed can rise no higher than its fountainhead.

A glance over the educational domain reveals a multiplicity of "schools" of education with their peculiar methodologies. We note conventional, progressive, experimental, new, modern, creative, doing-school, *L'école sur mesure, Arbeitschule, Tatschule, Produktionsschule, L'école renouvee, L'école active, troudovaya shḳola* as represented by Tolstoy's school, Ferrer's school, Dewey's school, Dalton school, Winnetka school, Reddie's school, Lietz's school, Decroly's school, Montessori's school, Tagore's school, and others.

Moreover, methods are to be found deriving their vitality and textural patterns from superimposed forms of indoctrination, political dogma, expediency, or some *ism* for nationalistic aggrandizement or ideal, religious bias, and mere dry-rot traditional conservatism or slavedom. The coloring and shaping of methods by virtue of such a diversity of educational ideologies should make us humble and tolerant with our human limitations, peculiarities, and divergencies of thought. The probable outlook

[1] Address to the First International Congress of Child Psychiatry, Paris, France, July 27, 1937.

indicates no one and only exclusive road to salvation in methodology. Certainly, it should be a genetic-dynamic instrument to be constantly reshaping in order to capitalize optimally new knowledge, needs, and discoveries. These should be critically put to a test to the end of a better realization of our tentative and ever-expanding "cardinal objectives" which must adequately serve a new and ever-changing world.

Mental Hygiene Emphasis

The psychiatric point of view emphasizes the importance of mental hygiene. Methods are merely means of bringing to effective focus and efficient realization mature personality functioning. By this is meant the espousal of those methods which will best serve the individual and group at various stages of personality growth and development in the light of healthy, happy, efficient, and effective socialization. It conceives no rigid, predetermined mould into which the individual must be squeezed. On the contrary, he is stimulated by the creation of adequate opportunities to develop to the optimum of his constructive potentialities as a self-reliant, self-directive, effective, marketable, and acceptable social unit. A positive mental health approach seeks out methods which will assist the individual to develop those traits and qualities which will constructively distinguish him from his fellows by virtue of the genetic-dynamic process of a better integration. He will grow in his ability to meet adequately the demands and opportunities of life situations and vicissitudes with a minimum of friction or disruptive conflict and an optimum of harmonious balance of individual assets and liabilities with respect to internal and external adjustment functioning. Likewise, in the case of the atypical, exceptional, or handicapped child, educational methods must be stamped as a failure if they do not make it possible for each and every child to live reasonably happily and successfully with his fellows. Just as the physician does not ask whether a patient is *worth* saving or being treated to the best of his skill and ability, so the teacher must, with the help of experts if necessary, and the State decrees it, educate every child, assisting him to fill with reasonable satisfaction and success some useful and respectable niche in our scheme of community living. The development of constructive pupil possibilities is the teacher's (also parents' and community's) responsibility.

Individual and Group Factors

Methodology will also vary with the level of ability and kind of ability of the individual or group as well as qualitative and quantitative aspects—size of class, pupil-teacher ratio, homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping, facilities and exigencies of the physical limitations of the school plant, for example, assembly periods. Nor should sight be lost of individual, group, and racial specific interests and prejudices which have to be frankly recognized and planned for meeting effectively. Moreover, subject matter and curricular demands will obviously affect methodology. But, the extent of their contribution to the child's education should be judged in the light of their effect upon his inviolable personality development. In so far as they positively contribute to the growth of well-integrated personalities, such methods have constructive value.

Importance of Teacher

Perhaps most important of all is the individual uniqueness of the teacher personality factor which may be so skilfully plastic as to make almost any method a success. Yet, ideally, the creatively intelligent teacher will tailor-cut methodology patterns to fit optimally individual and group needs

at each moment of peculiar growth and environmental demands and opportunities. The teacher's ability to obtain good results in preventing and handling problem behavior depends upon possession of a well-integrated personality, a sympathetic understanding and affection for children, training in interpretive behavior, and a genuine personal interest in the maladjusted child.

Broader Significance of "Educator"

The term "educative methods" as used herein does not necessarily imply methods expressly formulated for the professional educator. Growth in patterns of life adjustment as well as reconstructive and preventive psychotherapeutics is essentially an educational and re-educational process. It is obvious, therefore, that we do not narrow our conception of educational methods to include merely classroom-formulated devices with respect to the learning process. We are all more or less educators in the broad sense of the word; the professional educator or school teacher has no corner on its use. Thus methods will be mentioned which will be applicable to classroom needs and opportunities as well as for the physician, psychologist, psychiatrist, visiting teacher or social worker, counsellor, and others who make themselves more or less responsible for child growth and development and the handling of unwholesome deviations in intelligence-social adjustment.

Principles Underlying Methods

Before expanding the topic of educative methods in relation to intelligence and character difficulties encountered in children, I should like to emphasize a few fundamental theories, concepts, or principles which should ramify all methods. Each child is a unique "experiment of nature" in constant process of growth and adaptation to himself and to his physical and social environment by virtue of inherent continuous genetic-dynamic series of integrations comprising all levels of integration—metabolic, endocrine, biochemical, physiological, reflex, motility, emotional, vegetative, and central nervous system, and reaching the highest hierarchy of psychobiological development in discriminative capacity expressed in choice and decision, reasoning, judgment, reflection, planning, evaluation, and various association functions using symbolization with meanings. The only way in which the child is like his fellows is that he is different, and that in every way. Yet, because children are children, they are also more or less alike, which makes feasible critical homogeneous grouping for various purposes. But the facts of individual differences should challenge the parent, educator, and clinician to *discover* each and every component of his personality—intellectual, emotional, volitional, characterological, spiritual, and physical. It should be kept in mind that progress (change or illusion?) comes about by encouraging constructive deviations from the norm, not by mass uniformity which stultifies, mechanizes, and represses creative individualism.

To this end certain diagnostic methods may be turned to good advantage, particularly standardized tests of intelligence which Binet and Simon made known to a psychometrically starved world in 1905. Since then, other types of valid and useful tests have been added to our armamentarium for understanding the nature of the human material which we seek to unfold and organize constructively—tests of subject-matter achievement, special ability and disability tests, interest, personality tests, and others.

Integration Concept

Of paramount importance is a working grasp of the integration concept—that the individual always reacts to stimuli as a total

unit. We, therefore, are always educating the individual as a whole, but not necessarily or usually the whole individual. The individual is always functioning as an "I", "he" or "she" in which the part-functions (intellect, emotion, volition, memory, sense perception, biochemical, physiological, motility) are inextricably knit together but often glibly dissected as pseudo-entities or compartments for purposes of analytical discussion. At one time intellectual components may be in the lead, at another the emotions, and again overt behavior rather than implicit mentation may be in the foreground of expression. But just as a drop of water is always a drop, a unit, so the individual is always a functional dynamic behaving entity which may be equated with the word "mind" or total personality-function.

Role of Emotion and Intelligence

A further factor influencing methodology has only of recent years been gaining recognition, namely, education of the child's *emotions*. From his earliest to his latest years of adaptation to life, he is an organism striving through implicit or overt behavior to gain satisfactions and pleasures commensurate with the urges and demands of his constitutionally endowed and developmentally conditioned instinctive-emotional drives. Thus regarded, behavior is merely a symptom to be interpreted rather than judged, an expression of underlying motivations, impelling him toward personality needs—recognition, prestige, power, achievement, self-regard, self-protection, self-expression, satisfaction, pleasure, security, approval, sense of belonging, love, and sense of being wanted. There should also be opportunity for expression in which a wholesome challenge, adventure, possible failure, and imagination are stimuli. The reasonably happy, emotionally-socially secure child is always in the process of creative modification.

Capacity to think logically or a high degree of intelligence are not synonymous with good mental health. Capacity and facility in juggling ideas are usually used for purposes of rationalization rather than a rational mode of life adjustment. It is fashionable to be considered rational and thus our pride is inflated when emphasis is placed upon "thinking straight" and "thinking through." If children are left to their own free reign of developing discriminatory ability, they usually think well enough. But much that parades under the banner of "thinking" is propagandizing or rather urging or guiding pupils to cogitate in a more or less spontaneously predetermined pattern for some specific purpose, dogma, tradition, or bias. Moreover, teachers in order to cling to an economic existence must not openly swerve too far from predigested and prescribed or traditional patterns of thought, or encourage them, especially when they touch controversial current political, sociological, economic, racial, or religious topics. And yet, constructive propaganda in contrast to self-seeking, organized minority-aggrandizement propaganda is essential in education if rationalistic ideals and traditions are not to perish. Children need to be guided but not coerced or straight-jacketed into developing attitudes and choice and decision reaction patterns. Personal example in twenty-four hour living on the part of adults who are holding positions of leadership and are respected, admired, and loved is more effective than the glibly spoken word. Unless precept and performance harmonize, the spoken word merely serves to mock. Nevertheless, from the scientific educational and psychobiological developmental standpoint our ultimate goal should be facility in that creative and reflective objective relationship type of thinking which gives or offers promise of greater satisfactions and improved conditions of living for all concerned.

Build on Child Strengths

Another fundamental concept in methodology should respect specific pupil interests, aptitudes, and strengths. The starting point must be in the child's relative strengths or assets, not in his weaknesses or liabilities. Society is interested in what the individual *can* do, not in what he cannot do. Preparation for employability must respect this truth. This is all-important since the child's prevailing experience should be in success, not in failure. We build upon and work through his strengths to overcome weaknesses. Current interests and curiosity must be capitalized, created, or warmed up if attention is to be aroused, focused, and sustained. Activity should lead to a sense of accomplishment which wins teacher, child, and group approval for performance on his own and only level of ability to succeed. Moreover, his peculiar special abilities and talents should be capitalized in order that he be developed as a relative specialist, a person who shows off to advantage sufficiently to satisfy his sense of self-regard and prestige. Unwholesome comparisons are to be avoided. Rather is the individual motivated to improve his own score. Cooperation rather than competition should be the rule. Respect for individual rates and characteristics of learning, rather than a predetermined amount of content to be digested according to schedule, must prevail. In any event, the blighting effects of unwholesome failure, be it due to repeating a grade or to other causes, must be banished from his experience. If these various aspects of the learning process are respected, a significant contribution will be made toward preventive psychiatry or mental hygiene.

Levels and Kinds of Ability

It has been stated that among other factors and variables educative methods take on different shape with respect to different levels as well as kinds of intelligences. Since this aspect of education is usually directed by the professional educational psychologist, I shall not elaborate at length upon this phase of methods. Suffice it to say that in the early grades the behavior problem child may be essentially an educational problem primarily due to a specific educational disability (for example, reading) but more likely to be retarded, and occasionally accelerate mental development. The intelligent, sympathetic, and well-trained teacher will early recognize that symptomatic behavior indicates that the educational load is greater than the individual can carry with comfort at his stage of development. This should lead to a modified individual or group curriculum shaped to meet his specific needs.

Classroom Methods in Problem Behavior

The teacher must school herself in recognizing the combination of causal factors contributing to the frequency and type of the undesirable behavior. She must strive to understand the pertinent influences impinging upon the twenty-four hour child, particularly his home and neighborhood life and facts of physical defects or abnormalities. Since commonest types of causal factors occur most often, the teacher must be versatile with their frequency.

To be successful in correcting problem behavior the teacher must be in rapport with the child, must be able to gain his confidence, respect, and cooperation. If the teacher cannot do this, the child should be referred to some one who can. Transfer to another teacher or school may be indicated. Dislike of school may be overcome by allowing him to spend more time upon his special interests and strengths, and in showing him off to advantage in various ways (special assignments, position of responsibility and leadership, recognition, praise and approval of performance). A wholesome and

objective attitude should be maintained with respect to sex offenses and other types of delinquency. The cooperation of parents, physician, social worker, recreational, spiritual, and social agencies should be sought. Community foci of "infection" should be eliminated.

Show-off behavior and forbidden attention-getting performances should be objectively ignored as far as is feasible, and opportunities created for the child to gain attention in socially approved ways in the things he can do best. The hyperactive child may be more absorbed in activity program and suitable recreational outlets in school and community. The low vitality, easily fatigued, nervous and emotionally unstable child must be guarded against excessive environmental demands, excitement, and over-exertion. The calm, understanding teacher cooperating with the physician is essential. Lying, stealing, cheating, and exaggeration may indicate school demand and expectation greater than the child's ability to succeed. Thus undesirable ways of gaining recognition and attention will be invented. Pupil failure by and large is an indictment of adults, not the child. He wants to succeed and win social approval and he will if he is given adequate opportunity to succeed *on his own and only level of ability to succeed*. Thus, the school should primarily be a *diagnostic* center. There is, however, a place in common-sense education for constructive failure experiences, but the child's predominant experience should be in the habit of success.

The over-imaginative child who delights in fictitious representations and who fails to distinguish fact from unreality needs more time in experiencing the brass tacks of objective realistic activities such as manual training, clay modeling, painting, drawing, group games, and direct conversation outlets. Similar methods of facing and experiencing reality satisfactions are essential for the withdrawing type of child who tends to escape in daydreaming and fantasy from the disagreeable life situations. Such a child should learn to experience greater satisfaction in doing things and in group participation than in wishful dreaming. The seclusive type of child is now regarded as a greater potential risk in mental health than the aggressive extrovert who has received undue relative attention of the teacher because of interference with classroom management.

Methods which motivate the child to grow up, to assume more and more independence, initiative, self-direction, and self-sufficiency are essential if emancipation from excessive parental and teacher dependency is to be brought about. Particularly is this so in the case of the over-dependent child and the correlative over-solicitous and over-affectionate parent and teacher.

In the case of unwholesome or irrational fears, worries, anxieties, forebodings, and other types of undesirable emotional reactions, the parent or teacher *in loco parentis* must ferret out their specific causes and seek to modify or enucleate them. Opportunities for the child to talk freely and confidentially about his abnormal emotional reactions may, with the help of tactful adult interpretation, assist him in dispelling or ignoring them. Substitutive interests and positive activities may assist in crowding out morbid feelings and undesirable mood swings. Situationally-determined conflicts in the school and home should be discovered and removed as far as possible. Children who are depressed, excited, and emotionally confused must not be pushed or urged into complex learning-process tasks but rather made comfortable in order to gain emotional release.

Standardized Tests

Thanks to Binet and Simon, we have a handy device in grouping children according to their adaptive and reactive capacities

shown by standardized test performances. Their expert use in screening and grouping children should be espoused from the time of first entering school. Group and individual standardized tests of intelligence and achievement need to be repeated at critical periods throughout the child's school experience. But it should be kept in mind that tests are merely tool aids which test actualities rather than potentialities, and that their significance as cross-sectional performance must be evaluated in the light of longitudinal sections of the individual's psychobiological life-span history to date, as well as the facts of the child's physical, psychiatric, and environmental (physical and social) examination.

Mental Defect and Retardation

Recognizing that individuals dock off to various degrees and at various stages of intellectual development, let us start from the lowest grade of mentality. Idiocy (mental age 0 to 3 years, intelligence quotient 0 to 25) is a level of intelligence requiring educative methods found in institutions for the mentally defective. With respect to partial or incomplete idiocy, educative methods concern themselves with the simplest biological habit-training concerning personal hygiene and self-help. On occasion one finds the mongolian idiot and mongoloid types in the public school kindergarten or primary grade, but here again methods are necessarily restricted in scope and aim at habit formation in social adaptation, personal hygiene, music appreciation, simplest forms of manual activity and muscle coordination. They require, of course, close institutional supervision, have no community value, and are thus a type of grist which the mill of the public school should not and cannot be expected to grind. Nevertheless, from the standpoint of taxation and public burden, it should be the ultimate objective to communalize all types of social and intellectual deviates since institutionalization is not only more costly, but also in many instances makes it more difficult to contribute to society the child's relatively restricted, yet utilizable or needed asset values. On the other hand, it must be admitted that certain grades and types of deviates, particularly the recidivist anti-social aggressive individual should have the advantage of perpetual institutional care.

I. Q. 25-50. The next arbitrary punctuation of the scale of intelligence gives recognition to a group of children who are receiving more and more recognition in public education. Children with I. Q.'s ranging from 25 to 50, or mental ages of three to five, in many cases can be profitably assimilated in the public school system. Of importance in this connection is the education of the parents who daily bring their children to school, through informal discussions with the teacher concerning the child's assets and limitations in order that carry-over training into home and community may be more effective. Such children, for example, are being educated in "low I. Q. classes" in New York City, there being some thirty of these at present. The number in each class is from 20 to 25; chronological age ranges from 7 to 16 years. Methods here concern themselves with habit training in fundamentals of social adaptation, play, rest, relaxation, eating, work, personal hygiene, and acquisition of knowledges, appreciations, and skills within their capacity, interest, and usefulness. Methods used are for the most part activities of a group type interspersed with simple projects. Content and methods focus upon language development, habit training in social relations, and useful knowledges, experience building, and creative expression. Carrying out commands and directions, games, clay modeling, paper work, painting, weaving, sewing, raffia, woodwork, drawing, and coloring are all media of expression toward per-

sonality development. The guiding principle of these classes is beautifully expressed in a folder I noticed in one of these classrooms: "As one star differs from another in glory, so do the children of men differ in power and strength. Each child of God, even if not richly endowed, has his place in the great scheme of life in which under proper guidance he can find happiness and usefulness." Children of such low mental age range will always need close parental supervision, and in certain cases later institutional care if home guidance and supervision become inadequate to protect the best interests of the child and community. We aim at habit training which will make them more or less useful to their guardians, law abiding, although partial self-support can hardly be expected.

I. Q. 50-75. Educational methods with respect to children revealing I. Q.'s ranging from 50 to 75 have enjoyed a longer practice. In more populous and progressive centers such children are advantageously grouped in what is called a "Binet" or "special," "opportunity," "ungraded," or "adjustment" class. This group of children can usually be educated most effectively in special classes, although in smaller centers of population "modified special class" or individual plans are necessary. Without special educational facilities or planning for this two per cent of the school population, disheartening repeated failure is inevitable, their greatest potentialities lie undeveloped, and they are gladly ejected from school only to become a tremendous economic burden or menace to society. The vast majority of this group of deviates can be trained for effective citizenship and become wholly or partially self-supporting in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations.

The methods above noted in vogue in low I.Q. classes are amplified to meet the needs of developmental actualities of this higher group. Methods of instruction are essentially devoted to habit training in useful and prevocational or trade school skills together with practical knowledges and habits of social adjustment which will assist the individual in gaining employment and in measuring up to citizenship responsibilities. Since the mentally retarded child is better equipped to compete physically than mentally with the normal, his training is focused upon the development of manual work which requires least intelligence. We keep in mind occupational preparation and satisfactions in social life with the group with whom he will learn to cooperate and enjoy. In order to prevent failure even in the unskilled labor market we must see to it that his physical strength, endurance, motor coordination, and such personality traits as ability to get along with others, obedience, carrying out reasonable instructions, punctuality, orderliness, and good habits of personal hygiene, recreation, diet, elimination, rest and sleep are thoroughly ingrained.

Methodology. The starting point in methodology is with what he already knows and is able to do regardless of grade labels. He is taught only the things he needs to know and when it is most opportune for him to know them. Drill and repetition utilizing concrete aids and devices are essential; imitation, memory, and habit are the substitute crutches for reasoning and judgment in which he is relatively poor. The development of right attitudes and good habits is essential. To this end regular assignment at home and school are fostered relative to specific chores and tasks such as cleaning rooms, assisting the janitor, and running errands. In order that he become wholesomely accepted by his coevals and normal children, he should be treated with tactful consideration, creating opportunities to work and play with others and to show him off to advantage in his strengths; unwholesome comparisons, humiliation, and discouragement must be avoided. Understanding and a sense of

responsibility are promoted by the teacher's asking "brighter" children to assist the academically retarded child in his school work. Individual programs must be so formulated that he will go forward at his own rate and with adequate opportunity for doing the things in which he has the greatest interest and aptitude. We are training him for life, not high school; for followership, not leadership. Any method which promises results in these directions is justified. The blighting effect of failure to pass should be prevented by having the academically retarded child go on with the group into the next grade, even into junior high school, in case there be no special class for his education. By so doing, even though he be unable to meet the academic standards of this grade, he is kept with his social and life-age group who best understand him, who have been guided in helping him, and with whom he will be happiest. If we keep in mind the objective of the happy, effectively socialized child and shape methodology to this end, we shall not go far astray. Of course, the intelligent and understanding teacher will not challenge him with standards of performance which he cannot achieve with reasonable effort on his level and kind of ability. She will use concrete illustrative material and short periods of application in teaching academic subjects because of a short attention and memory span. The aim of reading will be for practical information, not pleasure. Time will not be wasted on phonics and grammar, but rather will improvement in oral expression be the goal. Mathematics are justified to the extent of their usefulness to the child in solving simple problems of daily life. Legibility is stressed in writing, with constant practice in useful skills such as receipts, business letters, and want ads. The social studies start from his home community and extend very little beyond his limited range of practical needs and appreciations. Academic work will occupy about one-half of the school day; the remainder may best be spent in acquiring various types of manual skills and facility in social recreational integration such as in games, dramatics, and hobbies.

The school's responsibility should not end with the curricular training, but should assist him in bridging the gap into channels of marketability. Thus, interesting possible employers of the school's products and pointing the training to fill probable occupational opportunities should legitimately concern the school personnel. The effectiveness and worthwhileness of the school's methods must be judged by the success in marketing its products. To this end, cumulative studies of each child continued in follow-up interest after he leaves school should be the responsibility of a child-community conscious school.

I.Q. 75-90. An amplification of special grouping is found in "slow moving" classes for the child of subnormal or borderline intelligence, I.Q. 75 to 90. Here we find methods utilizing drill and concrete symbolization, in contrast to abstract types of stimulation, still in the foreground. Many of these children who are retarded rather than mentally deficient will be able to catch up with the so-called "normal" group but, of course, require a longer period for assimilation of the content.

Average Child

Methods of educating the "average" child fortunately have enjoyed profound change and diversity during the last two decades. The teacher has receded to the side-lines, more as a coach and developer rather than as a domineering dispenser of knowledge. Activity programs and projects have supplanted mass repetition and recitation. Problem-solving and critical discussion are superseding regurgitation of facts acquired through memory exercises and mnemonics. Critical choice and decision based upon free-

dom of expression in gaining an understanding of the *pros* and *cons* of current problems and events are encouraged rather than the regurgitation of foreordained, immutable indoctrination. The learning process is no longer confined to the classroom but to a twenty-four-hour day-by-day digestion of experience which may take the child to libraries, museums, market-places, on nature study trips, and to industrial, business and governmental centers for gaining first-hand observation, understanding, and guidance in significant appreciations. Moreover, free periods are created and try-out courses developed to discover pupil interests and aptitudes to be capitalized. Special schools have been created to provide for the optimal development of constructive special abilities and potentialities—cultural, vocational, technical, art, music, and college preparatory.

Gifted Child

And, finally, the gifted or accelerate child is coming into his own. The need for special education for this child has become apparent—he is no longer left to paddle his own canoe. Such *laissez-faire* procedure ofttimes results in preventable problem behavior or personality twist. On the other hand, his unique potentialities for leadership, scholarship, initiative, resourcefulness, originality, and creativeness are recognized and challenging situations and opportunities are provided for development at his increased rate and type of learning. Facilities are afforded or created for him not only to enrich his grasp and range of subject-matter acquisition, but also through library periods, excursions, job analyses, and special projects to develop his gifted, accelerate potentialities. Classes for the gifted or accelerate have been created in order to afford wholesome competitive grouping and special schools are being established to capitalize his unique abilities, aptitudes, and interests.

With this type of constructive deviate, the teacher is essentially a guide, philosopher and friend, an inspirer of ideas and ideals, but not a dictator. Education is for potential leadership, although training in discriminative and wise followership is just as essential. Growth in a spirit of cooperation and a sense of responsibility is most desirable. Methods which aim to develop his peculiar characteristics must respect the need of as much freedom of expression as can be used wisely. Since he is predominantly book-minded in contrast to the hand-mindedness of the mentally retarded child, abundant opportunity should be afforded for library use with respect to special interests, projects, research, travel, biography, history, and science. The ever-changing conditions of a new world in the making will challenge his discriminatory powers. The *pros* and *cons* of current controversial topics in science, industry, economics, politics, and sociology will occupy considerable time. Emphasis is placed on creative studies stimulated by field trips and visits to institutions and industries.

His socialization will be enhanced by creating opportunities for him to assist less gifted children with academic assignments. In order to offset undue apportionment of time to academic pursuits, adequate facilities to participate in athletic and social activities should be provided. Exercise in leadership through adequate channels of expression should be made possible. He should remain in his social-age group with adequate facilities to feed his special interests rather than skip grades. This latter would contribute to unhappiness in school because of inability to compete physically or socially with chronologically older and physiologically and emotionally more mature pupils. Provision should be made for his education through secondary and college levels.

[Editor's note.—The second part of this address, which deals particularly with character and behavior difficulties, will follow in another issue.]

THE CLEARING HOUSE

HOW THE FRONTIER MOVED WESTWARD—AN EIGHTH GRADE HISTORY PROJECT

How the project plan originated. In an after-school discussion with some of my pupils, the talk turned to the reading of western stories. I suggested several that I liked and offered to make a list of good books which they might read for both English and history. About a month later so many children were reading these books that I determined to ask the class whether they would care to stop their regular textbook work (which at that time was "Transportation") long enough to make a thorough study of the Westward Movement. Their affirmative answer was so enthusiastic that we set to work at once.

How we began. The subject was vast, and in the beginning I had no idea of the form the work should take. I began by asking the class what topics they thought we should cover. They had dozens of suggestions to offer, gathered no doubt from the stories they had been reading. Some of them were: "The Gold Rush," "Sam Houston," "The Covered Wagon," "The Oregon Trail," "Search for Good Land," "Desire for Adventure," "The Steamboat," etc. All these and many more were listed on the board. Soon a need for organization became evident. After rereading these topics several times, we discovered that they fell naturally into five groups:

1. Means of transportation
2. Routes followed
3. Typical early settlements
4. Outstanding leaders in the Westward Movement
5. Conditions of travel and pioneer life

Next we came to the conclusion that it would be best for each student to specialize in one of these fields and be responsible for one important phase of that subject. Before they made their choices, however, another class had become interested in our blackboard notes and had begged to have a part in the project also. Finally we divided the subject into two parts, with 1845 and the Mississippi River as a rough line to divide the two groups. Both classes wanted the Far West, of course, so it was necessary for the class presidents to flip a coin to decide this momentous question!

Procedure in history class and correlation with other subjects. As soon as our general organization was complete, our next need was for an adequate bibliography. Several library club members [1] offered to make a list of the books on the subject to be found in our school library. As a result the librarian and her club prepared a complete card index for our use. These cards were kept in the library, a copy of each being made and filed in an index box in the history room. Originally indexed by subject alone, there was the astonishing total of 145 cards.

From the very first it was evident that many children wanted to construct a map to show the routes and means of transportation. A conference with the art teacher of some members of the class developed the project of a picture map. Brown wrapping paper, 40″ x 65″, marked off in 4″ squares, was tacked to the bulletin board. Two boys, one on the Atlantic side and one the Pacific, drew in the outline. As their guide they used a squared United States map. Blue poster paint was used for rivers, lakes, and oceans. As soon as this work was completed,

[1] Pupils who were members of the Library Club of the school.

we held the first of many discussions as to what should be put on the map. As we determined each route or picture, it was indicated in its proper place by dim pencil marks. Then began a series of moves for the map, from history room to art room and back again. Each day there were new things to be added. Each day in the art class the children painted in what we had indicated. In the end we had a beautiful and instructive map labeled "How the Frontier Moved Westward." It showed flatboats, canal boats, prairie schooners, the National Road, the Oregon Trail, the Texas Lone Star flag, Daniel Boone on the Wilderness Road, Indian raids on wagon trains, and dozens of other such subjects. As almost all the children had had some part in planning or constructing the map, they were vitally interested in watching it develop, and took a possessive pride in the finished product.

As the whole unit had grown out of an interest in the reading of stories which would fit both history and English, it was with this subject that I felt correlation was most important. This was carried out in four ways:

1. The English teachers of both classes accepted our bibliography and urged reading from it for outside reading credit.
2. Oral reports were given in history class to present subject matter.
3. In the English classes written reports on these same special topics were prepared. At the end of each report the pupil listed the books from which he had obtained his information. These reports, many of them illustrated, were made into a book which we are keeping for review and reference.
4. Lastly, as a summary of the whole project each class divided into three groups to prepare and present a series of conversations. These were:
   a. Going west in 1820 via the Cumberland Road, using packhorse and wagon
   b. Going west in 1830 via the Erie Canal
   c. Going west in 1843 via the Ohio River
   d. Going west in 1847 via the Oregon Trail to Oregon
   e. Going west in 1850 by wagon train to the California gold fields
   f. Going west in 1870 via the Union Pacific

In each of these we tried to bring out the reasons why people of that particular time and place were going west; we discussed the routes they were taking and the means of transportation on those routes; and we talked of the work of outstanding people or interesting frontier towns. Four of the groups sang songs of the period they represented—"Elanoy," "The Erie Canal," "The Little Old Sod Shanty," and the gold rush parody of "Susannah." In the preparation of these songs the children were helped by their music teacher.

The time we used. In all we took twenty-four class periods. Spring vacation broke the project in half and allowed time for considerable extra reading. The twenty-four periods were distributed in this way:

Organization	3
Reading in preparation for special reports	3
Reports with discussion and suggestions	3
General reading, work on models, etc.	4
Motion pictures	3
Group work preparing conversations	5
Presentation of conversations	2
Test	1
Total	24

The three movies used were from the Yale "Chronicles of America" series: "Daniel Boone," "The Frontier Woman," and "Vincennes."

Evaluation of the Project. Upon considering the project as a whole I felt that it presented an opportunity for development in several worthwhile directions:

1. It gave a chance to exercise individual responsibility in the choice and thoroughness of preparation.

2. In the use of books and materials and in the preparation of the conversations there was the opportunity for pupils to plan and work together.
3. There was the chance to prepare and use an extensive bibliography.
4. The material covered and the methods used were varied enough to encourage many special interests and talents such as reading, drawing, painting, building of models, bookmaking, typing, singing.
5. It introduced to the children many good books which are both well written and of historical value.
6. The call of the West with its difficulties and adventure became real to some of the children. For a little while they were in close touch with the lives of the pioneers. When most of the facts have been forgotten, there will, I hope, remain a vital attitude toward our westward movement which never could have been gained through formal class teaching.

An organization sheet was given to each pupil:

How the Frontier Moved Westward

I. Considered in relation to: (a) means of transportation, (b) routes followed, (c) typical early settlements, (d) outstanding leaders in the westward movement, (e) conditions of travel and pioneer life.

II. Methods to be used:
   A. Required general reading to be done by everyone:
      1. Page references in three textbooks listed
      2. Special reading on an individual subject
      3. General outside reading on the subject for which English credit will also be given
   B. Reports:
      1. Oral reports to be given in history class
      2. Written reports to be worked out in English—to be written on note book paper, in ink. At the end, list all references you have read, giving (a) book classification, (b) title, (c) author, (d) pages read
   C. Book—to be made of the assembled written reports and suitable pictures—to be kept for review and reference
   D. Picture map to be worked out in history and art
   E. Special maps and models
   F. Songs and periods studied
   G. Summary—in form of six dramatic episodes, each to be worked out by pupil committees, with help of English and history teachers—and presented before both classes.[2]
   H. Test—Part I on required reading, Part II on general topic of Westward Movement.

Topics for Oral and Written Reports

Watuge, Sevier, Boone, Wilderness Road, Boonesboro, Robertson, Clark and Vincennes, Fort Dearborn, Corduroy Road, Cumberland Road, History of Road Building, Pack Horse, Conestoga Wagon, Stage Coach, Conditions of Road Travel, Indians, Indians in Ohio, Pittsburgh, Flatboat, Rufus Putnam, Ohio Company, Marietta, Steamboat, Life in Ohio and Mississippi, Clinton, Building the Erie Canal, The Austins, Why People Went to Texas, Crockett, Houston, New England Emigrant Aid Society, Greeley, McCormick Reaper, Astor and Astoria, Sante Fe Trail, Santa Fe, Marcus Whitman, Mormans, Oregon Boundary Dispute, Fremont, Fremont in California, Bear Flag of California, Kit Carson, Jim Bridger, Sutter, Oregon Trail, St. Louis, Independence, Covered Wagon, Crossing the Plains, Indians, San Francisco, Via Panama, Via the Horn, Clipper Ships, Map Transportation in '49, Pony Express, Building the Union Pacific, Central Pacific, Buffalo Bill, Red Cloud, Custer, Sod House, Life on the Prairie, Homesteading, Cattle Raising, Oil, Transportation Today.

Such a project, of course, is the hardest kind of work for the teacher, but it is also lots of fun, and I believe is well worth the extra time and effort.

Bertha Phelps,
Robinson Junior High School,
Toledo, Ohio.

[2] Copies of the original dramatizations made by the pupils will be sent by the author upon request.

EDITORIAL COMMENT AND REPORT

AN OPEN MIND

In a changing world, we can not be too positive about anything. It is valuable to have some eternal verities, which we like to regard as such, to lend stability to an all too unstable world. But, for the most part, we should regard all our conclusions as *tentative,* and adopt an attitude of an *open mind* toward all future developments and proposals. We must guard against the crystalizing of our ideas, the influence of propaganda, and becoming set and fixed in our attitudes.

The most outstanding fact about our world is probably that of constant change. Orators may shout "as lasting as the pyramids," but it is only a matter of time when these ancient monuments will be reduced to sand. Many social orders have succeeded each other on this earth, and many of them have left scarcely a trace of their existence. Change! Change!! Change!!! Is anything everlasting? Even truth?

The fact of continuous change is so evident that we can not disregard it in education. We can not train for adjustment to the status quo, as this is not a permanent condition. We must train for adjustment to a dynamic world. We can not do this specifically, but we can give pupils the attitude of an open mind, and a readiness for and expectation of ever-changing conditions. We can arrange learning situations of this type, such as the study of trade or transportation through the ages. We can impress on pupils that there is no *last word* on any subject—that we have only the *latest word* on the subject. We must be constantly on the lookout for *later* words on the subject. We must adopt the scientific attitude of constant search for the truth, free from prejudices and pressure group opinion—an attitude of constant readiness and willingness to consider and acknowledge new interpretations and new discoveries, whenever and from whomsoever they may come, and to extend credit to whomsoever credit is due. We must urge this attitude on our pupils.

We must strive for the ideal of constant growth, as long as life lasts. The one indispensable quality which conditions the realization of this desirable ideal is the open mind. Dr. Bagley says the open mind is a good thing so long as it is not open at both ends. With this one qualification, the open mind is the sole quality which will enable us continuously to understand, appreciate, and evaluate the changing world in which we live.

And yet mere change does not guarantee improvement. We can deteriorate as well as improve. We must be sure that a change also is an improvement before we lend it our support and our best efforts for its attainment.

FRANKLIN M. UNDERWOOD.

THE DOWNFALL OF THE ACTIVITY PROGRAM

The story is told that someone asked Satan if he were not afraid that the general acceptance of the activity program in our schools would result in the downfall of his kingdom. His reply was very apt. "As soon as its possibilities are known, someone will reduce it to a formula and then education will again be in the rut of formalism."

This story serves very well to show what is happening to the activity program and its interpretation in our schools. A curriculum which is based on the philosophy that chil-

dren learn to do by doing is worthy of our most serious consideration. Short-cut devices, such as are advertised by commercial houses in the form of activity units, having for their real purpose the increased sales of a product or volume of books under the subterfuge of activity programs for our schools which any teacher can use, are defeating the very purposes of the philosophy of Dewey and its interpretation by our progressive schools.

In industry an invention is accepted when and only when it can do all the old processes in an additionally improved manner. The standards which were set by the old machine must be maintained. Any added features such as speed, durability, or less man power for operation are not assets if the quality of the product is lost. The same is true of the activity program in our schools. In utilizing the interests of the children, all the essential standards set by the old education can be maintained plus some added features of the new education, such as better attitudes, self-reliance, pupil growth, etc. One great trouble with so many of our recently trained teachers is that they have the point of view of the "new" but they do not have the least conception of the standards set by the "old." There is a vast difference between exposing children to certain content material for a year with no standards of achievement, and actually teaching children. Our commercial houses and sellers of volumes of books with so-called activity program units, through their glowing descriptions of the ease with which an activity program can be worked "if" we use their materials, would lead us to believe that the millenium has arrived. Superintendents of schools and supervisors of instruction seem particularly susceptible to such propaganda, and are giving great impetus to this standardizing process. The result is that activity units which were worked successfully in one place are commercialized and teachers in other districts are forced by those in authority to use exactly the same materials in exactly the same way year after year, a most deadly process for even a partial activity program.

Take the case of the teacher who was in doubt as to the type of activity in which her children would be interested on their return to the classroom in September. She knew that more of her children were spending their summer vacations in the country than at the seashore. She made a guess that they would be more interested in an activity concerning the country than the seashore and accordingly made plans for a farm unit. However, when the children did return she found that their interests were centered around a certain bridge in the process of construction in the community. In order to utilize this interest the teacher's plans had to be changed. She had no time to write to commercial houses for suggestions and new units. She used the true philosophy of the activity program and capitalized the interests of these children in formulating the work for the year. This particular unit could probably never be used again by this teacher in exactly the same way and certainly not by any other teacher if it were placed on the market in standardized form. Commercial houses tell us that these standardized units, developed in this manner, can be used in any place by any teacher. Their sales have increased tremendously and the deadly effect of a great standardizing agency is at work in our schools.

Upon closely examining the situation, however, one wonders if responsibility for this wrong interpretation of the activity program can be placed entirely upon publishing houses and sellers of volumes of books. We all realize that their aim is to sell more materials and we can possibly excuse them for it. The question is, why do school administrators and supervisors of

instruction aid in this propaganda for easy teaching? Shall we say they have no true philosophy of education? Shall we say they have been exposed to a certain amount of training in their educational careers without assimilating a basic understanding of a philosophy of education? Or shall we say they have the point of view of the old but are desirous of a change, and look to this as the easiest way out? When teachers are gullible enough to accept this interpretation of the activity program it is a reflection on their training, but when those in authority are responsible for such an interpretation the condition appears to be hopeless. In a very short time the true purposes underlying the activity program will be defeated in an aimless effort to better our technique. A really good thing will be condemned by the public as a failure, and many of our schools will be more thoroughly entrenched in formal school work than ever before.

The teacher training institutions must be the hope for the future. In a meeting with a group of teachers recently the question arose as to the standards and level of achievement expected from the children before promotion to the next grade. One of the older teachers volunteered the information that years ago he knew of a teacher who expected every child to be able to spell all the words in the third reader before promotion to the fourth reader. Others spoke in terms of aims, objectives, and norms from standard tests. When certain professional readings were suggested which would give them definite information on the subject, one of the teachers exclaimed, "I don't understand why I didn't get some of this material in training school." This is probably the answer to the whole question. If institutions for the training of teachers can instill into their students a basic understanding of the philosophy of education and a proper respect for expert opinion and the results of scientific research as compared with the teacher's own personal opinions, I believe the activity program can be saved.

M. Wesley Detwiler,
Assistant Superintendent,
Montgomery County Schools,
Norristown, Pa.

RESOLUTIONS OF CALIFORNIA SUPERVISORS

The California State School Supervisors' Association, in conference assembled at San Francisco in October, 1937, went on record in nine resolutions, four of which were as follows:

> The Association feels grateful and proud to be affiliated with the National Education Association. This affiliation brings added prestige as well as added responsibilities, and we feel that this warrants every California school supervisor to show his professional interest and pride by becoming a member immediately.

> Inasmuch as many children in the rural communities are being educated in buildings which are sub-standard, and inasmuch as this condition must continue to exist because of the financial inability of many districts to provide more satisfactory educational facilities, we consider it urgently necessary for the State Department of Education to attempt to secure legislation designed to secure at least minimum standards in school buildings and grounds.

> Inasmuch as a rapidly changing educational philosophy has rendered obsolete many methods and procedures formerly practiced in the school, this Organization commends all efforts to improve the curriculum in the field of teacher education in order that teachers may base their instructional activities and methods upon sound scholarship, thorough understanding of the nature and needs of children, broad knowledge of the problems confronting contemporary society, and well-established techniques in those arts and crafts designed to stimulate and guide the creative efforts of children.

Inasmuch as many young teachers find their first opportunity for professional service in the rural schools of the state, teacher-training institutions should direct every effort to provide basic instruction in the adaptation of the educational program to the problems inherent in the multi-graded rural school; the professional training program should provide opportunity for prospective teachers to have at least part of their directed teaching experience in rural schools of high educational standards.

The Committee on Resolutions consisted of John G. Terry (Chairman), Floyd Tarr, Alvin Rhodes, Mrs. Nileta Journeay, Miss Lu Crandall, and Mrs. Laura Specht Price.

SUMMER CONFERENCES

In New York City

The Second Annual Conference on Elementary Education, sponsored by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association and the School of Education of New York University, is scheduled to be held at the University, July 2-15, 1938. The theme of this conference will be "The American School in Transition." General sessions with lectures by prominent educators will be followed by group discussions. The afternoons and evenings will be devoted to excursions and cultural activities. For further information, address Miss Eva G. Pinkston, Executive Secretary, Department of Elementary School Principals, N. E. A., 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

In Wellesley

"The American Citizen—What Part Can He Play in the World Situation?" will be the underlying theme of the lectures, discussions, and forums at the Summer Institute for Social Progress at Wellesley, Massachusetts, July 9-23, 1938. The conference, which is open to both men and women in business, industry, and the professions, will be held on the country campus of Wellesley College. Dr. John Stewart Burgess, formerly of the University of North China and now Professor of Sociology at Temple University, will be the leader of the faculty of social and economic experts. Full particulars of the Institute may be obtained from its director, Miss Dorothy P. Hill, 420 Jackson Building, Buffalo, New York.

THE DAY OF THE AMERICAS

April 14, by proclamation of President Roosevelt, has been set as Pan American Day—the Day of the Americas, to renew the bonds of friendship uniting the twenty-one Republics of the Western Hemisphere. Schools, colleges, and universities, clubs, civic and commercial associations, and the public generally will observe the day with appropriate ceremonies. Materials for the use of groups planning to present programs may be secured without cost by addressing the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

THE READER'S GUIDE

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Although psychology is commonly recognized as one of the sciences basic to sound development in education, writers in the field of secondary education have too frequently submerged the psychological viewpoint beneath a confusing welter of social theories. It is therefore refreshing to find a new volume on the junior high school[1] that starts out to present the psychological viewpoint and sticks to it. Proceeding on the thesis that "the first and most important function of the junior high school is the recognition of the nature of the pupils, including their individual traits, interests, capacities, and needs" (p. 73), the author has included a review of the significant findings of psychology with respect to the physical, mental, and social traits of prepubescent and postpubescent pupils. He then proceeds to discuss the implications of these findings with respect to the aims and functions of the junior high school, the program of studies, and the methods and content of the various subject fields.

Acceptability of the content of the book will depend, of course, upon the viewpoint of the reader. Those who would have the junior high school focus attention upon society rather than the individual will take issue with some of the author's statements —for instance, the discussion of the sociological method of solving educational problems (p. 32). Nevertheless, though he may disagree, the reader will find many challenging ideas and much that stimulates thought —for example, the author's discussion of the statement, "the junior high school is the school of the early adolescent" (p. 34-39).

The workmanship of the book is sound—the consistent use of educational terms being particularly noteworthy. It is interesting to read, although teachability might have been improved.

Educators interested in the junior high school will welcome this new volume as an important addition to the literature in this field.

J. Harold Fox
The George Washington University.

WHITHER CURRICULUM?

To the reader who has had a limited outlook on curriculum trends, the report[2] of Ruth Mary Weeks and her sixty-one expert collaborators is enlightening. A carefully detailed compilation of the new curricular patterns which are unobtrusively appearing in our elementary and secondary schools and in our colleges, it reveals the undeniable fact that the correlation of English with other subjects is being widely attempted in an effort to achieve the educational aim of preparing the student for life and the financial aim of maintaining an efficient school system with shrinking appropriations.

Individual chapters give comprehensive surveys of exactly what has been done in the various experiments, ranging from the most conservative programs in which the correlation of English with other fields has consisted merely of incidental references and isolated projects to the most progressive curricula in which subject-matter divisions have

[1] *The Junior High School.* By Ralph W. Pringle. McGraw-Hill Company, 1937.

[2] *A Correlated Curriculum:* A Report of the Committee on Correlation of the National Council of Teachers of English. English Monograph No. 5, National Council of Teachers of English. Ruth Mary Weeks, Chairman. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1936.

been swept away. Meticulously avoiding all editorial comment, the writers have presented factual material which challenges the reader to draw his own conclusions concerning the relative values of specific course units.

For the administrator, the report is a valuable background for the formulation of school policy; for the classroom teacher, it is a stimulating document containing dozens of practical suggestions for the vitalizing of instruction; for the layman, it is a comprehensive study of those present-day aspects of the field of English which seem to prognosticate the character of the curriculum of the not-too-distant future.

AGNES K. TWEEDIE
The George Washington University.

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

To escape from the restrictions of reality, our forefathers wrote fairy tales; to escape from the restrictions of science, our contemporaries write philosophies of education. The mistress of science clips, or at least measurably binds, the wings of imagination while the mistress of philosophy gives them free range, the freer the better. Nor are the two necessarily in conflict. Philosophy may be the reconnoitering airplane that spies out the land over which science may then painstakingly build highways and habitations and which it may cultivate. The mischief results when speculative philosophy is mistaken for science.

The New Culture, by Melvin,[3] falls into the amorphous field of the philosophy of education. "It sets forth the unified and living nature of all things, and makes suitable applications in the realm of education" (Foreword).

Of its 14 chapters, the first two are introductory, chapter three pertains to logic, chapters four to eight are devoted to metaphysics and the philosophy of science, chapter nine to psychology, chapter ten to sociology, and chapters twelve, thirteen, and fourteen to education. Chapter eleven pertains to the curriculum, broadly considered, and so may be looked upon as transitional.

In respect to our traditional fields of study the author tells us that "we must discard the organization which cast our world since Aristotle into such various logical or static forms as astronomy, mathematics, history, geography, arithmetic, language, grammar, logic, metaphysics, psychology, art, music, and so on in endless array. This type of organization is outmoded; it should become for the purposes of the school entirely extinct. The educational luncheon must be served in a new set of courses with food adequate for all" (p. 167).

This new set of courses "must begin with our dynamic universe, the whole, of which we ourselves and all things are but part-processes. From this whole it must proceed to those parts which are functionally valuable. Such fundamental aspects are Energetics, the Natural Environment, Plants, Animals, and Man" (p. 167).

It becomes the function of elementary education, secondary education, and higher education to see the rising generation safely through the multifarious ramifications of these new courses. "By the time the child has finished his elementary school career he should have developed all those functional knowledges, habits, attitudes and skills which schools of an earlier generation secured. But he should have gained much more. He should know himself. He should know with some certainty the community around him and its world relationships. He should know vastly more about the world of science and invention, of philosophy, of psychology, of political government and economics than fell to the lot of the high school graduate of thirty years ago" (p. 208). The

[3] *The New Culture,* by A. Gordon Melvin. Reynall and Hitchcock, 1937. (A John Day Book.)

author doesn't say whether he should know this at the end of the sixth grade or at the end of the eighth.

"The basic work of the secondary school is to carry on the organic development of the individuals who come to it" (p. 212). The program of the Eagle Rock High School of Los Angeles is referred to approvingly and is described in the appendix.

"The college is a place to receive and to make superior men" (p. 227). It "should be the real practice area for creative thinking" (p. 232). "Those who wish material 'Success', no matter at what price, should attend a college run by racketeers" (p. 227).

A vigorous place is made for the training of teachers from the functional rather than the academic standpoint. Such training should take its departure, not from the college class in Education, but from the classroom activities of elementary and secondary schools. "The tiresomeness, the redundancy, the inanity, the purposeless intricacy of the endless courses which are offered in the name of education is a pitiful commentary on the feebleness of our teachers of education" (p. 238). "Education is not a subject, it is an activity" (p. 239).

Although this review has already grown too long. I have so far touched upon only the last four chapters of the book. Just how the earlier chapters prepare the way for the author's treatment of education is not entirely clear to me. It may be granted that the well-educated teacher should be grounded in the natural sciences, in logic, in psychology, in sociology, and in metaphysics but it may honestly be questioned that these subjects should be given basic treatment in a book on Education. But perhaps teachers of Education would do this anyway, whether the text they were using did it or not. A dean of Education on an off day once remarked: "It doesn't make make much difference what subjects you assign to teachers of Education; they all teach all they know anyway."

However varied the opinions of educators may be in respect to the contents of this book, they will all take off their hats to the publisher. John Day has done his part to perfection.

Related in subject matter to the preceding book by Melvin is Lodge's *Philosophy of Education*.[4] This author tells us in the Preface that "philosophy, at the present day, is pursued by thinkers who, as a rule, group themselves into one of three schools, as *realists, idealists,* or *pragmatists.*" Around these three conceptions the treatment of every chapter or major division of the book revolves. The nature of education, the mind, knowledge, subject matter, interest and effort, initiative, method, examinations, ignorance, and liberal education are each treated in succession under realism, idealism, and pragmatism. In respect to examinations, for example, the author maintains that the realist inherently favors the new type, the idealist the essay type, and the pragmatist the problem type.

The author feels that it is important for every teacher and administrator to recognize himself as a realist, an idealist, or a pragmatist, to be consistent in his position, and to be charitable in his attitude toward the other two. The teacher who shifts from one position to another is guilty of inconsistency and stands in need of "education." Such a person the author appears to call a *knight-errant* in education.

It seems clear that a book like this could not serve as a text in Education except for students thoroughly grounded in metaphysics, and if they were so grounded it seems equally clear that they would be dissatisfied with it. There is no one ground known to the reviewer on the basis of which

[4] *Philosophy of Education*, by Rupert C. Lodge. Harper Brothers, 1937.

philosophers may, like Gaul, be divided into three parts. On the basis of the ultimate nature of reality, philosophers may be divided into monists and dualists, to which the author's realists and idealists appear to correspond, but in the world of reality pragmatism is open to both of these, as witness Dewey the monist and James the dualist. But the author's basis of division may not be metaphysical; it may be ethical. If it is, the reviewer is still at sea.

In developing his topics in relation to his three basic positions, the author makes a conscious attempt to be impartial but he does not succeed in concealing the fact that his heart is in idealism. The expositions of the other two positions are little more than caricatures, although this is less true for pragmatism than for realism.

W. C. RUEDIGER

THE NEW BOOKS

Problems and Values of Today. By Eugene Hilton. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1938. Pp. 640. Illus. $1.60.

Social Living. By Paul H. Landis and Judson T. Landis. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1938. Pp. 672. Illus. $1.80.

Everyday Economics (Revised Edition). By Cornelius C. Janzen and Orlando W. Stephenson. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. 530. $1.68.

How to Teach. By Claude C. Crawford. Los Angeles: The Author, Southern California School Book Depository, 1938. Pp. 511. $2.50.

The Problems of Education. By Claude C. Crawford, Louis P. Thorpe, and Fay Adams. Los Angeles: The Author, Southern California School Book Depository, 1938. Pp. 239. $2.50.

Psychology of Elementary School Subjects. By William H. Gray. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. 459. $3.25.

Social Interpretation. By Arthur B. Moehlman. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. Pp. 485. $3.00.

A First Course in Statistics. By E. F. Lindquist. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. 226. $2.25. *Study Manual,* pp. 122; $0.80.

Science in Our Lives. By Benjamin C. Gruenberg and Samuel P. Unzicker. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1938. Pp. 750. Illus. $1.76.

Teaching the Social Studies on the Secondary School Level. By T. H. Schutte. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. 583. $3.25.

Secondary School Teaching. By J. G. Umstattd. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1937. Pp. 459. $3.00.

Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Edited by I. L. Kandel. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. 583. $3.70.

Seven Days at Sea (Fact and Story Series). By Ruth Strang, Barbara Stoddard Burks, and Helene Searcy Puls. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 117. $1.00.

Here and There and Home (Fact and Story Series). By Ruth Strang, Barbara Stoddard Burks, and Helene Searcy Puls. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 120. $1.00.

Founding Teachers College. By James Earl Russell. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. 106. $1.40.

IN PAPER COVERS

High-School Students Talk It Over. A Report of Actual Discussions by High-School Students about War, Motion Pictures, the High School, Radio, and Parents as Given on the Ohio School of the Air. By I. Keith Tyler and High-School Students. Columbus: Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research, 1937. Pp. 55. $0.25.

Books on Home and Family Life. By Ruth Budd. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. 24.

Diagnostic and Remedial Spelling Manual. By Arthur I. Gates and David H. Russell. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. 44. $0.60.

The Measurement and Analysis of Audience Reaction to Student Speakers—Studies in Attitude Changes. By Alan H. Monroe. Lafayette, Ind.: Bulletin of Purdue University, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 1a, December, 1937. Pp. 80. $0.80.